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SUCCEEDING AGAINST THE ODDS

Strategies and Insights from the Learning Disabled

Sally L. Smith

JEREMY P. TARCHER, INC.
LOS ANGELES

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13
What Teachers Can Do

"I felt sorry for my teachers. They didn't know what to do with me!"

"If you can't learn one way, they need to try another way, and another, but most teachers won't or don't know how to."

"It's important for teachers to pull out of you what you do and don't understand."

"Classes have to be smaller. Teachers can't help you if they don't know you."

"Ask a professor for help—dog him, dog her, nag if necessary, then hope he'll take the time."

"Teachers need to learn the art of listening."

"Every teacher should be made to take a course on learning disabilities."

Many adults with learning disabilities talk of recurring nightmares about elementary school:

- being called upon and being unable to utter a word
- being asked to write something and the pencil flying out of their hands

- being asked to do a math problem, and the numbers turning into slimy creatures that squirm off the page
- sitting on a stool with a teacher pointing a stick at them

Hans Christian Andersen, author of *The Ugly Duckling*, had, in his sixties, nightmares of a schoolmaster making fun of him. Despite all their triumphs, many celebrities with learning disabilities still shudder in the presence of a teacher. Anger creeps into their words as they talk about their teachers. "He thought I was stupid and let everyone know it!" said one of them. Another got even by drawing gross cartoons of his teachers. One obliterated teachers from his mind. Still another said that his success occurred with the help of his wonderful family and friends and *despite* his teachers.

Some teachers prefer to work with the advanced, uncomplicated students who progress rapidly. They resent having to adapt their teaching methods for a student with learning disabilities. Thomas told fellow Night School students that he had experienced the impatience of these teachers, who did not want to be bothered by him or by his mother and father. One teacher calmly told Thomas that he was limited and should go to vocational school. From then on the teacher ignored him.

How could that teacher fail Thomas so totally? Perhaps the kindest answer is that many teachers, never trained to work with exceptional students, are baffled about how to help them. Many teachers are overburdened by having as many as forty-five in a class, often including at least five with special needs.

It is hard work to be a teacher, especially of students with learning disabilities, who can become all-consuming if a teacher does not have the training and support to work with them. They provoke anxiety in their teacher and make her fear that

she may never reach them. Easily defeated and afraid of failure, such students resist learning and set up impenetrable roadblocks. They convince many teachers to try another career! The students' feelings of worthlessness are contagious, and teachers sometimes catch them.

Teachers are often shocked by the depths of emotion their former students express, both positive and negative. "I was going to drop out of school in eighth grade," said Felicia, "but this one teacher would not let me do it. He argued with me. He attached himself to me. He told me there was a lot that I could do to make the world a better place. He asked me to research something about the aged for him. He got me involved in a service project, where he was the advisor. He managed to have time for a Coke after the service project and to be there for me. Eventually, he and I worked with another girl who was going to quit school because her learning disabilities were dragging her down. He even managed to develop an award with a trophy—*For the Most Giving Student to Those in Need*—and made sure I won it. He gave me *so* much confidence. He was my turning point. I'd like to give him *The Extra Mile* award because he saved my life . . . at least changed it for the better. He gave so much of himself."

There are successful adults with learning disabilities who credit a few dedicated teachers who went that extra mile for them with saving them from dropping out of school. They revere these teachers. "I overcame my particular problem because of really wonderful people, most of them teachers, who care very, very much. Gradually, with a tremendous amount of hard work and patience that I still can't believe, they convinced me somehow that I could do it. They helped me to compensate for whatever my problems were. They found a way around some of my difficulties and enabled me to gain for myself some self-confidence and some belief that I could do it," said Thomas Kean, former governor of New Jersey.

WHY TEACH?

Why do people become teachers? *Certainly it is not for the money.* It is to share the world of the mind; to bring the best out in students; to help them forge ahead, acquire skills and knowledge, develop interesting lives, and excel in their chosen professions. Sometimes teachers lose sight of these goals and try to cram facts into their students' heads rather than to encourage their curiosity or to seek better ways for them to acquire learning skills.

For example, a student had handed in her best paper to date to a university teacher who glanced at the paper, threw it back to her, and said, in front of other students, "This is not college material! Why are you here?" The college student had the thinking skills of a gifted adult but, because of her learning disabilities, the writing skills of a fifth grader. She should have been given three different grades—one for content, one for effort, and one for writing skills. Her teacher was destined to become for her one of those negative memories that we saw in the preceding section.

The best teachers, the ones who become their students' treasured memories, are those with a sense of mission. They are moved by the joy of learning, and feel compelled to share that joy with others. They take pleasure in seeing a student become excited about learning and take off on her own. Such caring, conscientious, dedicated teachers give their all to their students.

All teachers who go into special education must be such people because they will be dealing with children and adults whose lives are on the line. Because the stakes are so high and the job is so difficult, such teachers need more patience than others do. They also need to be more analytical. Special-education teachers have to keep asking what works and what doesn't. They must constantly look for patterns in learning and in

behavior *that can be used* successfully with particular students. What interests of the student can be built upon? Special education at its best is high-quality individualized education.

With a broad smile on his face, Garrett, a graduate of the Lab School who could not read until he was thirteen years old, told of "the day that everything clicked. I will never forget that feeling—like a deep rush of emotions pouring out, like fireworks exploding into magnificent color patterns in the sky. I could read a page, then another and another, and I went on and on. My teacher hugged me and turned red, and she had tears in her eyes. Even though I was thirteen years old, I hugged her. She had made it possible! And now I read at least a book a week."

The few adults at Night School who have had some *special* (that is, individualized) education seem far better disposed toward teachers than do the other students. Most of them embraced the instruction they received, and many adored their special-education teachers, even though they resented being in special classes and having to leave their friends to go to the resource room for special education. A graduate of the Lab School told students that "all teachers should be required to teach special education, particularly to teach the learning disabled, for one year, before they are allowed to teach in regular schools. Maybe then teachers would realize that there is a way everyone can learn, and they would learn to individualize and be creative."

THE SPECIAL NEEDS OF ADULT LEARNERS

The adults at the Night School have the courage to put themselves on the line. They realize that it is up to them to learn, that teachers can't open up their heads and pour in skills. They become coinvestigators into their own problems and coworkers on the solutions.

It is evening when they come in to study, most of them straight from their jobs, their families, or their universities. They are tired. Their teachers have to radiate energy and charisma. They have to arouse enthusiasm and energy in these students to ready them to start learning. And then they must deliver the very best of their knowledge and teaching. It's a tall order, night after night. Not everyone can meet the challenge.

Humor abounds at the Night School. Classes are filled with laughter and a sense of fun, which is terribly important. Students know they are with faculty who are human—who believe they can learn and will not give up on them. They rely upon being talked to very directly. They expect to be treated with respect and not talked down to. Unlike kids, who are required to go school, adults make this choice themselves. Once at school, they want the expertise of the teachers. In some ways they are more demanding than children. They wear out their teachers in a different way.

Adults with learning disabilities often have a ferocious intensity, demanding to know everything and to be able to take off in leaps and bounds. They require the most experienced, the most knowledgeable teachers, who can answer their many questions, who can explain why they are being taught in divergent ways, who can do diagnostic and prescriptive tutoring, saying, for example, "Because you tend to learn in this way, we are going to have to adapt your materials in the following way." Volunteers in literacy programs, who often know little about learning disabilities, are sometimes staggered when they encounter this intense thirst for knowledge; they don't know how to deal with it. The situation is unfair both to the volunteers and to the students unless top professionals are guiding the volunteers every step of the way.

When adults seek help at the Night School, they know that the ultimate responsibility is theirs. Faculty find it exhilarating to teach people who want to learn, who want to soak up

every bit of their knowledge. They don't have to play games with their students. Everything is laid out clearly, from the plan of instruction to goals and objectives. At each session adults expect their faculty to go over with them exactly what they will do.

Teachers working with a group of five adults have to be even more organized. Each of the five, each hour, must have an organized progression of activities written down in a folder before him. The teacher switches back and forth among the five students with ease, operating from a highly organized work plan, within which she can be creative as the need arises. But the essential goal remains matching student and teacher—creating an alliance that works.

"That teacher is not my style," said one of the adult students, Julian, to the Night School director, and the director immediately went to work to find the one that would form the proper match. Julian was back a week later reporting, "She's doing everything I need to learn!" Adults give teachers the feedback they need. They can reveal what children cannot.

Although things are improving in 1991, there are few good adult materials for low-level readers. Teachers obviously don't want to give childish materials to adults, yet the materials must be simple enough that adults with reading difficulties can follow them. Children's materials will not do. Therefore, teachers of adults have to make a lot of their own teaching materials, and they have to modify materials originally intended for children. Adults want practical materials that teach them skills they can use every day. As described in detail in chapter 7, adults tend to learn best by doing, just as children do.

When working with adults, teachers need to realize that their students are often burdened with many outside problems, such as taking care of children or parents. Although they tend to do more than is required of them and often hold themselves to standards higher than their teachers expect,

sometime the pressures of living, a job, a recession, or a war affect their work. The approach or the pace of a teacher's lessons may at times have to be changed.

A teacher of adults needs to keep himself from stepping over the line from being a friendly professional to becoming a dear friend. Sometimes adult students need to lean on a strong shoulder, but for the most part, teaching and tutoring sessions should be focused on work. Teachers ought not to cry on the shoulders of their adult students, though this sometimes does happen because the learning disabled are often extremely nice, sensitive, caring people.

PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING

There are a number of principles of teaching students with learning disabilities that hold for adults as well as children. These are discussed below.

Individualizing

All children and adults deserve individualized education. The individual needs and learning styles of each student must be recognized and built upon by his or her teachers. This means looking at each student and listening carefully. It also means choosing materials and methods appropriate to each student's interests, abilities, and learning style. (More about this below.)

Focusing on Strategies, Not on Problems

When a student has trouble learning, the *teacher's role* is to show her that her failure is caused by inefficient and ineffective strategies, not by lack of effort, intelligence, character, or discipline. The teacher then needs to help the student seek new strategies.

Problem Solving

A student's failure to learn means that we have not yet found the way to teach him. The teacher must keep on exploring, doing the necessary detective work, until the way is found. Older students with learning disabilities need to take an active part in this pursuit as codetectives in search of their own learning styles.

Problem solving is the essence of teaching. Teachers of the learning disabled are, by nature, problem solvers. First they must solve the puzzle of how a student learns. Then they must invent exciting ways to teach her. Teachers who are excellent problem solvers use the student's help in developing strategies that work.

Preventive questioning, a technique of problem solving, raises questions such as these:

"What part of this can you do by yourself?"

"Where will you have trouble?"

Preventive questioning alerts the student to anticipate problems that may arise.

Reframing is another technique that works. When a student says, "I'm failing everything," the teacher reframes the statement by saying, "Yes, you are failing English, but you are doing well in math and science." People with learning disabilities often have difficulties with part-whole relationships: they do not see all the parts that make up the whole, and they interpret one failure or mistake as utter confirmation of their worthlessness. If the one failure is not reframed, they tend to feel hopeless or depressed and may even back out of their academic pursuits.

Analyzing Tasks

Just as teachers need to analyze how their students learn, so they must analyze what it is they are trying to teach. A physical-education instructor hands out combination locks to his adolescent students. Does he consider what is involved in working a combination lock? José, an adult with learning disabilities, says that he failed physical education as a youth because "I wouldn't dress out [change into athletic clothes]. Why? Because I couldn't figure out the gadget, the combination lock, but, look, how did they expect me to do that when I can't tell right from left?" Part of teacher training must be in analyzing the tasks students are being asked to do. Consider the task of opening a combination lock. It can be broken down into at least seven functions demanding skills such as

- knowing left from right
- having sufficient eye-hand coordination to (1) hold the lock in one hand; (2) do the combination with the other; and (3) be able to move fingers in a direction away from the thumb
- reading symbols, recognizing numbers, seeing the spaces between each slash mark and the numbers on the lock
- remembering the combination and what to do
- understanding the sequence (left turn, right turn, left again, pull)
- having a sufficiently developed sense of timing to know when to pull the lock
- having the attention span to stick to the task

José's gym teacher expected all sixteen-year-olds to be able to do these things. He didn't notice that José had trouble with the task. If the gym teacher had taken the trouble, he

could have broken down the task, found out which parts of the task José could accomplish alone, and taught José the other parts of the task. It is good practice to start teaching such a student at a little below his competence level in order to ensure success. The teacher should have asked himself questions such as

> Will José learn best by demonstration?
>
> Do I need to talk him through it?
>
> Will he learn best by hearing instructions?
>
> Would written instructions help him?
>
> Do we need to develop strategies to help him distinguish his left side from his right?

Keith told José that he put a purple sticker on the left side of his combination lock so all he had to remember was "go purple to 5, the other way to 30, purple to 7, and pull."

Varying Teaching Methods

In general, teachers need to know all the methods and approaches that have been developed to teach a particular subject so that they can pluck out the one that they need for a particular student. Individualizing means matching the methods to the student and tailoring them to fit his needs. A teacher must analyze his own patterns of learning and understand his own learning style so that he can vary it for his students. When teachers are pressured to teach too many students at once, one unfortunate consequence is that a single method is likely to be adopted and all students will be expected to conform to it. If a student has severe auditory and language problems and her school system uses a phonetic approach to reading, she is being set up for failure after failure.

In college, where classes are smaller, professors can be encouraged to help the learning disabled seek ways they can be successful. On the other hand, some college classes have more than a hundred students in them. The college's division of Academic Services or Learning Services can help students choose the classes or instructors that will best meet their needs.

Providing Structure

Regular routines, clear procedures, and customary behavior let students know what to expect in a classroom. In general, persons with learning disabilities have difficulties in establishing and maintaining inner boundaries and parameters and therefore need even more structure in their learning environment. Teachers must establish a time, a space, and a place for all things. Open shelves help students see where things belong. Younger children need to practice how to enter a room, how to leave it, how to find materials, and how to return them to their proper places.

Since people with learning disabilities can become easily overwhelmed, the teacher has to limit the amount of stimulation in the room—the amount of work, materials, procedures, choices, and talking—all without limiting the student.

Explaining and Demonstrating Tasks

With students of all ages, teaching the approach to a task, as well as the task itself, can be very helpful. This means talking through the whole procedure, giving an overview of the task, and explaining what it is and where to begin. Often it means giving the student a dry run through the task so that he can understand it based on concrete, hands-on experience.

Students with learning disabilities, who are often language impaired, need to be given clear, precise direction in a minimum of words. Teachers need to listen to the directions

they give and to show students what these directions mean in terms of the actions they must take. "Half the time I mess up on the directions given to me," said Mark, a college student with learning disabilities. Yolanda said that her problems were that some professors talked too fast and were barely audible. Teachers should train themselves to use vocal inflections and pauses consistently to emphasize important points in their lectures.

Giving the Gift of Time

As discussed in chapter 6, timing and time-management difficulties must be understood by teachers who have students with learning disabilities. What is hard to realize is how slowly such students process what is heard, what is read, and what has to be written. Throughout this book, the voices of celebrities tell the reader how much longer it took them to do what everybody else could finish in minutes. Teachers need to experience what it is like to be given an assignment (written in gibberish) and to watch the people next to them (whose assignments are not written in gibberish) finish in a minute while they are still struggling. The abilities of the learning disabled often cannot be evaluated when they are held to a time limit. Such people need the gift of time.

Building on Strengths

Teachers need to pick up on anything a student enjoys, be it automobiles, football, fashion, art, TV, or cooking. All these things can provide a route to learning. Make special materials to teach what students need to know through what they like to do, want to do, and *can* do. Discover the particular talents of each student and work these talents into the life of the classroom. Make sure that the student with learning disabilities holds responsibility in the area of her strengths. Do not simply praise her talent. Depend on her.

With children, it is important to schedule any remediation classes for times when a student will not have to be pulled out of his favorite classes. Adults need to have remediation scheduled at a time that does not conflict with things they like and do well.

Making Progress Visible

Students need constant and visible proof of progress, shown, for example, on graphs or charts, in cartoons, or on checklists. Certificates of accomplishment are treasured proof of competence. Students should make comparisons with their earlier work and see with their own eyes that whereas they could read only a paragraph in September, they can read a small book in April. As discussed in chapter 7, their concreteness requires that they be able to see progress.

Parents also need to see the student's strengths in some visible form. When a teacher presents a report on the student's progress, it should be concrete. Pieces of the student's work should be picked out and patterns of errors and corrections visibly displayed to parents, who often are also concrete. Successes should be highlighted as well as mistakes.

Teaching through the Five Senses

New material needs to be linked to past knowledge and experiences. Unfamiliar material can sometimes be linked to parts of the body. For instance, the five vowels can be linked to the five fingers, each with a different function.

Simple, elementary tasks need to be presented in unique, sophisticated, and alluring ways. Students can study the early history of mathematics by pretending to be shepherds tallying their sheep with knots on a string or scratches on a rock. As the flock grows, new computing methods will have to be invented. Abstract concepts in political science, such as the global balance of power, can be demonstrated with scales.

Some students have very poor rote memories. For such students a teacher must find methods of evaluation other than examinations. Drawings, cartoons, projects, tape recordings, and papers written on computers can all be used. The learning disabled know more than they can demonstrate by traditional means. So, the teacher must find each student's proper medium and have the student use it to show what she understands. Also, memory can be strengthened if a student is given a concrete reminder, such as a tea bag to hold in an American history class to recall "No taxation without representation." A whiff of curry powder can remind students that the explorers of the fifteenth century sailed around the world looking for the spices of the Orient. Vocabulary development can be helped by studying word derivations and finding their concrete origins. For example, a picture of Nicolas Chauvin in a Napoleon hat might evoke the word *chauvinism*, meaning "a blind fanatical patriotism" such as Chauvin had for Napoleon. Reinforce what has been learned by constant repetition, in different ways, through different media, until the learning sinks into the bones and becomes automatic.

Not Catching Others' Feelings

Feelings of defeat, of fear, of anger, and of guilt are extremely contagious. Teachers need to learn not to respond in kind to their students' negative feelings but rather to use those feelings diagnostically. Edwin came into the Night School angry. He started to argue with his teacher over some insignificant point. His teacher was able to register Edwin's feelings and say, "You're angry about something. I can tell because I wasn't angry this evening, but the moment I was with you, I started feeling angry. So deal with it or talk to me about it and then get to work!" Teachers have to be enough in touch with their own feelings to be able to register the feelings of their students.

Valuing Effort

All teachers know the value of praise. *It is important to give specific, not global, praise;* to value effort and positive attitudes; to show appreciation when students are willing to be taught; to ask questions; and to be sensitive to the needs of others. For example:

> "You certainly look ready to learn."
>
> "I like the way you are looking me in the eye."
>
> "I'm impressed that you remembered to bring everything for the project."
>
> "You struggled. You stuck to it and came through!"

Changing Pace

Anticipation is a key to teaching people with learning disabilities. The teacher needs to anticipate when a student will start to become overwhelmed by too much material. The teacher must stay several steps ahead in order to anticipate when the student will become restless or unable to remain in a group and will therefore need to switch to another activity. Anticipation, with humor, can facilitate a transition, as when a teacher says, "Well, now, it's about time for you to throw down your pencil, grunt, and state what a dumb, boring activity this is!" If a student can laugh, his mood changes and a problem is averted.

Changes of activity and pace help hold wavering attention. Remember, the attention span of a student with learning disabilities can often be short. Teachers have to entice attention, lure it, and hang on to it in every possible way—by catching a student's eye, altering the tone and volume of voice, using dramatic gestures, touching a shoulder, and using a student's name. As one businessman with dyslexia put it, "The

teacher is the seller. The student is the purchaser. He can be turned off easily unless the teacher really makes an attempt to sell especially to him!"

Always have alternative plans and backup material on hand. On some days (particularly on overcast, stormy days or right before the full moon), students become more restless, and teachers need the flexibility to drop a lesson and change plans. College professors who teach small seminars can change pace; in large lecture-hall classes, it is more difficult.

Setting Goals

With students who are learning disabled, it is important to set a few simple goals to be accomplished each year. These can be behavior goals such as not interrupting or academic goals such as mastering fractions. They can be goals of bringing homework in or remembering to bring a pencil to class. Students must take part in setting their goals. Teachers and students need to check in periodically through the year to see how these goals are being met. Students do best having some goals but not too many.

Adults with learning disabilities need to set different goals, such as improvement on the job or movement to another job in a few years. Such goals help them to reach higher and not be complacent. Successful adults with learning disabilities tend to have had very specific goals that they strived to achieve. Success didn't just happen to them. They aimed for it.

Innovating

When teachers use unusual, innovative teaching methods, students tend to be more interested and to learn more. The American Constitution can be taught as if to a Russian student just learning about democracy. Tyranny can be studied in the

persons of Adolf Hitler, Idi Amin, and Saddam Hussein: if they were in charge, how would they change the United States? If poetry is being studied, an Indian drum can be used to convey rhythm in the works of such poets as Vachel Lindsay and Gerard Manley Hopkins. Originality on the part of the teacher encourages individuality on the part of the student.

A sense of adventure should pervade what happens in school. Trips of the mind and the soul should take place. Surprises, from time to time, should provide delight (even though the learning disabled have trouble dealing with changes in routine). Education must be a journey into ideas, not just an acquisition of facts. All the senses need to be engaged.

The intellect needs to be challenged through using the senses. Imagination needs to be tapped to gain the total involvement of a student. The use of the absurd to get across a point works with the learning disabled. Laughter is an important teaching tool. It commands attention. It motivates. It tells the student that his troubles with studies are not catastrophic.

Teachers need to emphasize the importance of diversity and divergent thinking, not only by having students study the different backgrounds and customs of various countries but also, for instance, by encouraging them to come up with as many ways as possible

- to describe a storm
- to protect America's water supply
- to draw a map
- to protect an animal threatened with extinction
- to celebrate birthdays

Obviously, people who do not learn in orthodox ways profit from unorthodox teaching methods. A lot of the talents developed by the celebrities who appear in this book were overlooked in school. These talents could have been detected

and developed sooner if their teachers had taught in more innovative ways.

It is time to bring art forms back into the classroom so that crafts, drama, puppetry, music, dance, filmmaking, and ceramics can join the computer as learning tools. The hidden talents of students are waiting to be explored. Teachers can explore and nurture these talents, but they need supervisors who will encourage and help them. They need principals who will lead the way, encouraging their staffs to discover and use new tools. They also need school boards that will rely less on quantitative measures such as test scores, since nontraditional learning often cannot be measured annually but tends to show results only over longer periods of time.

The following charts can help teachers look for their students' strengths and weaknesses.

If a person has a preponderance of checks in the last two columns, he or she may be demonstrating a number of attentional, organizational, and social immaturity problems similar to learning-disabled students, and needs to be referred for testing.

CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR	USUALLY	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
Extraordinarily observant				
Listens well to instruction				
Follows oral directions well				
Speaks to the point				
Well focused on tasks				
Completes tasks within time frame				
Is on time to classes				
Homework handed in on time				
Follows written directions well				
Tests well, particularly multiple choice				

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CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR (cont.)	USUALLY	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
Good use of space on a page				
Moves well (not clumsy)				
Knows left from right side				
Good handwriting				
Takes good notes				
Neat desk				
Brings necessary materials to class				
Follows procedures carefully				
Good follow-through on projects				
Consistent in responses to questions				
Remembers information well				
Good with symbols and codes				
Good with foreign language				
Good with algebra and chemistry				
Good at organizing work				
Alphabetizes well, uses library well				
Self-starter				
Adjusts well to changes in routine				
Moves easily from one activity to another				
Can do several things at once				
Welcomes new approaches				
Eager for new information				
Sensitive and considerate of others				
Takes turns easily				

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AVAILABLE

THE CHANNELS OF LEARNING

What channels does each student use? Look for patterns of strengths and deficits, know the deficit areas, and build on the strengths.

ACTIVITY	VISUAL/ SPATIAL CHANNEL		VISUAL/ MOTOR CHANNEL		AUDITORY/ LANGUAGE CHANNEL	
	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak
LISTENING SKILLS						
Listens attentively						
Trouble following directions						
Asks for repeats of information						
Learns best from lectures						
Difficulty rhyming						
Memorizes by repeating out loud						
Doesn't like to be read to						
Prefers to see pictures than listen						
Does not like to deal with telephone calls						
Quickly hears difference between "b" and "v"						
ORAL EXPRESSION						
Excellent vocabulary						
Difficulty asking questions						
Good storyteller						
Cannot remember the correct word						
Problems organizing thoughts, speaking clearly						
Uses grammar and syntax well						

ACTIVITY	VISUAL/ SPATIAL CHANNEL		VISUAL/ MOTOR CHANNEL		AUDITORY/ LANGUAGE CHANNEL	
	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak
ORAL EXPRESSION (cont'd)						
Has good social language (pragmatics)						
Creates pictures with words using descriptive vocabulary						
Prefers to draw than talk						
READING SKILLS						
Excellent retention of words seen (sight vocabulary)						
Mixes up b, d, p, and g						
Sees patterns in words (e.g., pat, cat, rat)						
Good sounding out of words						
Blends sounds well						
Doesn't learn from phonics						
Poor memory for consonant and vowel sounds						
Skips, omits, and adds words						
Poor comprehension of reading material						
Cannot keep place in the book						
Applies rules of syllabication						
Does not see details in words (e.g., vowel sounds)						
WRITING SKILLS (written expression and handwriting)						
Spells phonetically						

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ACTIVITY	VISUAL/ SPATIAL CHANNEL		VISUAL/ MOTOR CHANNEL		AUDITORY/ LANGUAGE CHANNEL	
	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak
WRITING SKILLS (cont'd)						
Accurately forms and spaces letters						
Good at art, poor at writing letters						
Writes 41 for 14, "saw" for "was"						
Difficulty copying from blackboard or book						
Poor note taking						
Traces letters well						
Poor spelling						
Poor coloring, pasting, cutting						
Doesn't like to do puzzles, mazes, word searches, follow-the-dot exercises						
Mixes up sequences within a word (e.g., gril for girl)						
Good handwriting						
Likes to write messages to everybody						
ARITHMETIC SKILLS						
Remembers multiplication tables easily						
Accurately forms and spaces numerals						
Mixes up signs of + × + −						
Can't align numbers properly in columns						

ACTIVITY	VISUAL/ SPATIAL CHANNEL		VISUAL/ MOTOR CHANNEL		AUDITORY/ LANGUAGE CHANNEL	
	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak
ARITHMETIC SKILLS (cont'd)						
Difficulty with word problems						
Misplaces decimal points in math problems						
Trouble identifying and producing geometric shapes						
Difficulty seeing angles						
Understands components of algebraic statements, but gets lost when completing full problems of several lines						
LEARNING CONTENT (e.g. geography, history, chemistry, biology)						
Mixes up South America and Africa on map						
Poor recall of geographical terms						
Able to take good notes						
Does well following picture sequences of experiments						
Trouble following oral directions for procedures						
Difficulty reading charts						
Good recall of historical dates						
Poor recall of chemistry symbols						
Good fund of general information						

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SUPPLEMENTARY READINGS

SESSION TWO

LEARNING DIFFERENTLY:
MEETING THE NEEDS OF ADULTS WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES

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PREFACE

The Center for Literacy Studies, The University of Tennessee, is a multi-disciplinary research center on adult literacy. Funded by grants from the Tennessee Department of Adult and Community Education, The University of Tennessee and the Knoxville News Sentinel Company, the Center's goal is to conduct research which develops our understanding of adult literacy, its causes and effects on our society, and methods and approaches for literacy education.

When the Center for Literacy Studies began its work late in 1988, we met with literacy program coordinators and teachers in different parts of Tennessee to learn about their concerns and problems. We wanted to base our research on key issues in adult literacy for the state of Tennessee. Wherever we went we kept hearing about learning disabilities. Practitioners wanted answers to their questions: "How can we tell if someone has learning disabilities?" "How can we diagnose specific problems?" "Are there special methods for teaching learning disabled adults?"

In response to these concerns, we asked Beth Bingman to review the literature in the field, and to pull together approaches to diagnosis and teaching which easily could be applied by Tennessee programs. This is her report. We have concluded that there are no easy answers to all those questions. There are no 'quick fix' solutions, no one method that meets the needs of all. But learning disabled adults *can and do* learn to read. They and their tutors need to understand what their problems are, to take a flexible approach to teaching and learning, to be creative and to work hard. All of these are within the reach of every literacy program. We hope this report will help coordinators and tutors develop their own approaches to meet the special needs of the learning disabled.

Our thanks Mallory Clarke and to Advisory Committee members Anne Hablas, Margaret Bott and Jane Cody for commenting on a draft and to Mike Lemonds for design and production.

Juliet Merrifield
Director, Center For Literacy Studies

INTRODUCTION

Few issues are of more concern to literacy coordinators, or cause more frustration to students and tutors than learning disabilities. Why do some people have such a hard time learning to read? How can we tell if someone is dyslexic? How do we teach these students? This report looks at these questions and provides some tentative answers.

We look at working definitions of learning disabilities, and how they affect reading. We discuss how learning disabilities can be diagnosed, especially when professional testing is not available. And we review some useful ideas from a variety of sources on teaching reading to learning disabled adults. A Resources section will enable anyone who wants to learn more to follow up on the ideas presented here. And a series of Appendices contain some concrete methods which have been found useful in other programs.

WHAT ARE LEARNING DISABILITIES?

Many of you have taught in public schools and found that some children learned much more easily than others. Some seemed never to learn. And now you've found the same thing with adults. What is going on? Probably several different things. A few people may not have the time or motivation to work hard enough. But these are probably very few, and their lack of "motivation" may come from the difficulties they are having with learning. Some may have vision or hearing problems. These should be checked: can the person see clearly, can s/he hear? Some people have no problem with decoding, but have trouble with comprehension because they lack the background knowledge to understand much of what they read. We need to provide a lot of material that is familiar in language and content to build their fluency and at the same time begin to build their background information in all kinds of ways — like reading, videos and discussions.

Some learners have limited intelligence. They may be mildly or moderately mentally handicapped. Their difficulty in learning affects all areas and is evident in their conversation as well as in their attempts to read. They may be great at phonics, and therefore sound like good readers, but have little or no understanding of what they have read. Or their reading may be limited to survival words, words needed specifically for work, and things like family names. They may not become readers of new materials.

Then there are learners who clearly have the intelligence to read. They may even have learned to read, but can't spell "cat." These are the learning disabled.

Then there are learners who clearly have the intelligence to read. They know and understand a great deal. They have been in school long enough to have had the opportunity to learn to read. They may even have learned to read, but can't spell "cat." These are the people we mean when we talk about the learning disabled.

Specific Learning Disabilities is a chronic condition of presumed neurological origin which selectively interferes with the development, integration, and/or demonstration of verbal and/or non-verbal abilities. (ACLD Board of Directors)

Students with specific learning difficulties, commonly known as dyslexia, are those who have some interference in the basic processes involved in using language, i.e., perceptual/ motor/ linguistic processes. These difficulties are independent of school experience, social, economic, or emotional factors or intelligence. (Adult Literacy and Basic Skills Unit Report)

These are two of many definitions of a condition which is usually called learning disability in this country and learning difficulty in Britain. You are probably familiar with the definition in P.L. 94-142 of learning disabled children which covers nearly any school problem children may have which is not called something else.

Historically, educators talked about "word blindness", linked learning disabilities with hyperactivity, and assumed brain

damage. More recently learning disabilities were assumed to be the result of visual perceptual problems, were called dyslexia, and were suspected any time someone made reversals of b and d. This is still a common perception of the problem.

Some people believe that the idea of learning disabilities has little scientific basis, but has been adopted by parents and teachers as an acceptable way to explain school failure. Our view is that learning disabilities are real, but the concept probably has been abused.

Current research seems to indicate that learning disability is primarily a language disorder, a problem with information processing.

For our purpose we will define learning disability as a problem of people who have average (or above average) intelligence, but who have *specific* difficulties with basic language learning processes which affect their ability to acquire competence in reading, spelling, and writing. When we are talking specifically of reading we may also refer to dyslexia. While not discussed in this paper it is important to remember that learning disabilities can affect areas besides reading, including social skills.

HOW DO LEARNING DISABILITIES AFFECT READING?

Probably a more important question than definition is what does it mean when someone has a learning disability? Often we assume that the learning disabled see differently, that they reverse letters, see backwards, etc. For a small proportion this may be true; their problem involves visual perception.

Current research seems to indicate that learning disability is primarily a language disorder, a problem with information processing. This approach views the mind as a computer with information going in (sensory input), being processed (analyzed, sorted, etc.), stored (in short or long term memory), and in some cases resulting in an output (speech, writing). Most learning disabled people have problems with tasks in processing and storage of information. They may not be able easily to produce a verbal label. They see, for example, a picture of a train, they

understand it is a train, but they are slower than most people in coming up with the word **train**.

These learners may have problems with memory, either short-term memory for things like sequences of letters, or access to long term memory. Breaking words into separate sounds (phoneme segmentation), is difficult for many learning disabled readers. They may have difficulty in learning and remembering the sounds of words, with phonics.

Most learning disabled readers have trouble with breaking words into separate sounds.

Most "normal" readers seem to start by learning sight words, often in stories they already know. But because it is difficult to memorize very many words by sight alone, new readers begin to use phonics and word patterns to decode words. They begin to pay attention to beginning sounds, to "see" and "hear" the difference between **sick** and **stick**. This process happens automatically to some extent as readers try to decode words they don't know, and as they want to write. Phonetics are even more important in spelling.

Most learning disabled readers have trouble with breaking words into separate sounds. So for these readers the phonetic cues don't come easily. They have to learn them in a structured sequential way. And even then the phonetic cues may never work as well for them.

Fortunately most dyslexic people do not have problems with the meanings of words or text and so at the next stage of reading they can use context - semantic and syntactic cues - to decipher new words. The phonics problem become less significant when we recognize that reading is gaining meaning from print. Using a combination of basic sight words, phonetic cues like initial sounds and word patterns, and the meaning of the text, most learning disabled adults can learn to read. They will continue to need special work on spelling and often in how to organize their writing.

HOW IS A LEARNING DISABILITY DIAGNOSED?

Most literacy programs do not have access to a psychologist to give the battery of tests often used to "diagnosis" learning disabilities. It probably doesn't matter. The most common "symptom" for such a diagnosis is a significant difference on the verbal and performance sections of the Weschler intelligence test. As a teacher you will can tell this difference when you have a student who seems intelligent, who you expect will not have trouble learning, and s/he does. You are seeing a difference between expected and actual performance. Or you may notice a pattern of difficulties like these:

- ** shows significant discrepancy between verbal and written performance
- ** experiences persistent or severe problems with spelling, even with "easy" words
- ** has difficulty getting ideas on paper
- ** loses place easily in a series or in reading
- ** finds it difficult to memorize or remember facts, new terminology, names, etc.
- ** may easily misread or miscopy
- ** may experience right-left confusions
- ** handwriting may be messy
- ** written work may not adequately express student's understanding, ideas, or vocabulary
- ** has persistent problems with sentence structure, punctuation, and organization of written work, (not due to lack of experience)
- ** has trouble generalizing, or acquiring and applying rules
- ** has difficulty seeing his/her errors
- ** does not seem to learn by "ordinary" teaching methods
- ** may be described as a "quick forgetter"

It is important to remember that all of these difficulties can be found in beginning adult readers. It is the persistence of these symptoms over time that indicates learning disability.

It is important to remember that all of these difficulties can be found in beginning adult readers. It is the *persistence* of these symptoms over time that indicates learning disability.

Educational Diagnosis

The next step to take with a student who seems learning disabled is for student and teacher to work together on an educational diagnosis. They will explore how the student learns, their strengths and weaknesses, why learning has been so difficult, and the student's learning style. In this process, the student should find that s/he is not stupid or crazy, but is someone who learns differently. A diagnostic approach should enable the student and teacher to establish an effective, individualized program, and encourage independence and confidence in learning. There are different ways to approach this process, but it should be done with the student. In the Resources section is the STALD test, which is somewhat mechanical, but could be useful (Montgomery, 1986.) The ALBSU program in England uses the four-part diagnostic process outlined on the next page.

The student should find that s/he is not stupid or crazy, but is someone who learns differently.

TEACHING READING TO A LEARNING DISABLED STUDENT

Some general points to remember when working with learning disabled adults:

** remember, the important skill is getting meaning from print
** have student do a lot of reading, e.g., language experience
** the material should be relevant, interesting, and familiar
** be positive, build on students' strengths
** usually one-on-one tutoring is needed for at least some individualized direct instruction on needed skills
** divide learning into small chunks
** provide many opportunities for repetition, review and over-learning
** pay attention to learning style (more about this later).

ALBSU (UK) EDUCATIONAL DIAGNOSIS

1. A LEARNING HISTORY - informal interview. Students tell what they view as their significant problems and strengths, talk about learning to read, family history, school experiences, and so on.

2. MISCUE ANALYSIS - looking at miscues (errors) in an oral reading passage. (See details in Appendix A.) Students with visual processing problems may have difficulty recognizing known words, may rely heavily on sounding out words, will usually have poor comprehension. Students with auditory processing problems may have trouble decoding long or unfamiliar words, but will use context to correct many errors, and will remember a great deal of detail. Asking the student to re-tell the story, and questioning her/him about significant details enables the teacher to check comprehension, memory and sequencing ability.

3. SPELLING ERROR ANALYSIS - a dictation of at least 20-25 words. With the student the teacher analyzes errors into five categories:

a) logical phonetic alternatives which follow English spelling conventions, **hart** for **heart.**
b) visual sequencing errors, **dose** for **does.**
c) rule-oriented errors which do not follow English spelling conventions, **stashun** for **station.**
d) auditory perception errors, sounds missing or confused, **natul** for **natural.** (This could also be the result of regional accents.)
e) motor integration errors, repeating or adding or telescoping parts of words: like **beginining, rember.**

Students with visual processing errors are more likely to have a number of errors in b) and c); students with auditory processing problems in d).

4. WRITING ANALYSIS, in a piece of free writing, look at handwriting, compositional skills and technical skills. Does the student use standard punctuation and capitalization? Can s/he organize his or her thoughts in a coherent way? Does the writing make sense?

Source: Adult Literacy and Basic Skills Unit, London

When planning instruction for learning disabled adults there are three areas to consider: direct instruction in the areas the students has problems with, usually reading and spelling; learning about learning or metacognition; learning style.

Direct Instruction

Each learner is different, has different needs and different problems.

Although some claim to have it, there is no one way to teach dyslexics to read. Each learner is different, has different needs and different problems. If a method promises to be the way, be careful!

Phonics: For most people with learning disabilities a reading program should include direct instruction on basic sight words, some phonics, and a lot of reading to practice using context and phonetic and word pattern cues. For many people the Laubach program may be as effective as any. But it is important to be flexible, not to worry too much about skills like blends if the student has a lot of difficulty with them. The important skill is reading in context, so while some practice on sight words, or 'word attack skills' (consonants, prefixes and suffixes) is useful, it should not take up much of the reading session or become frustrating.

Some severely disabled readers will need a multi-sensory approach to get started with sound and sight words. Seeing, hearing, saying, and tracing words may be necessary. Laubach does this to a certain extent, but additional work may be needed. The outline of the Fernald method in Appendix B may help.

Language experience: It is important to include a lot of additional reading which is in the oral tradition of the reader in subject and language. This includes language experience stories. It is much easier to read when you know what to expect: 'I was thinking about buying a new pickup,' instead of 'The time was approaching to purchase a new automobile.' Writing and collecting good material is an activity that may be useful to the individual learner, and can be used by other learners as well.

Comprehension: Because the emphasis needs to be on meaning not decoding, work on comprehension should be ongoing. Talk about the *who, what, why, where, how* of a passage. Help the student organize verbal information so word-by-word reading is avoided. Sometimes breaking sentences into meaningful phrases can help, e.g., "I was thinking / about buying / a new pickup." Comprehension strategies like questioning as you read, reviewing meaning, and finding the main points should be taught. Making a summary, or getting the gist of a piece of writing is an important skill, although difficult particularly for people with sequencing problems. Strategies developed by Keefe and Meyer are in Appendix C as well as information on how to get copies of an article by Bill Cosby which should help more advanced readers.

The emphasis needs to be on meaning not decoding.

Spelling: Many students identify spelling as the skill with which they have most difficulty. Working on spelling can improve reading, as students learn to pay attention to word patterns. The ALBSU program uses the LOOK, COVER, WRITE, CHECK method developed by Robin Miller and Cynthia Klein. This method is in Appendix D. They find it is important to be regular and thorough in following the method. People do learn to spell.

LEARNING ABOUT LEARNING - METACOGNITION

In addition to direct instruction in skills, learning disabled adults, and probably all literacy students, need to learn about learning. This is 'metacognition.' Skilled readers use metacognition when they:

- are aware of the purpose of reading - to construct meaning from what is read
- can distinguish the important parts of text, and know where to focus their attention and what to summarize
- monitor their comprehension and have strategies for 'de-bugging' (for example, varying their speed and attention level
- apportion their time effectively

Learning disabled adults need metacognitive skills to become autonomous and active learners. "To be able to use, modify, and generalize learned skills and strategies, learning disabled students must be able to monitor how well they are performing previously learned skills and strategies" (Wong, 1987.)

Learning disabled adults need metacognitive skills to become autonomous and active learners.

The ALBSU program includes classes specifically focussed on teaching metacognitive skills. These classes are for students with specific learning difficulties who already attend classes, but need individualized support. Learning Support Classes cover:

** Developing spelling skills, discussion of:
- what spelling is (visual-motor memory skill)
- the distinction between reading and writing
- memory and memorization

** Becoming an effective reader: discussion of:
- what reading is (gaining meaning from print)
- distinction between reading and decoding
- distinction between reading and reading aloud
- skills needed in reading for different purposes
- the active reader

** Developing writing skills: discussion of:
- proofreading and its importance in becoming an independent writer
- writing for different purposes
- link between reader and writer
- distinction between writing and speaking

** Becoming an independent learner: discussion of:
- the role of the tutor/student in learning
- role of motivation in learning
- different types of learning (memorization, understanding, and activity)

The learning support class also gives students an opportunity to discuss problems which their disability has caused and share strategies for coping. They can share experiences and discover that other people are struggling with similar difficulties.

LEARNING STYLE

A third area to consider in planning the program with the adult learner, whether disabled or not, is learning style. The term 'learning style' is often used for different concepts. Probably we are most familiar with learning style as learning modalities - visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile. These modalities are important. Some of us remember what we've heard better than what we've read. For others, the opposite is true. For some, writing or even "performing" a word or concept is the best way to learn. There are many checklists and tests to determine strong and weak modalities. Observation and asking may serve as well. When you and your student are aware of how s/he learns best, instruction and practice can be modified to fit.

It is also important to be aware of your own learning style in this area, and be sure that you use the style that helps your student.

It is also important to be aware of your own learning style in this area, and be sure that you use the style that helps your student. Looking at your own learning style also helps you be sensitive to students' different needs.

Another way to look at learning style is in terms of 'global' versus 'analytic' styles. Global learners are whole word readers and learn holistically, whereas analytic learners learn things in sequential steps (as in phonics instruction.) Although dyslexic learners often read in a holistic way, they may also need some structured work on phonics. They are not as likely as other students to acquire these decoding skills without direct instruction.

The differences in the right and left hemisphere of the brain give rise to a similar theory of learning style. 'Left-brain' people tend to like sequence, be more structured and systematic, solve problems by looking at parts, are excellent planners, and are analytic. Those who are more 'right-brain' people are involved with visual-spatial activities and are more random and spontaneous; they see patterns, solve problems by looking at the whole picture, and arrive at accurate conclusions intuitively.

Other learning style theorists look at environmental preferences in determining learning style. They consider such factors as level of noise, lighting, temperature, room arrangement, group size, time of day, mobility, whether people prefer to eat or drink while they study. It may be useful for learners to explore the environment that they prefer, and try to match it as much as possible.

Learners and teachers who take account of different learning styles when planning activities, work in styles that are most comfortable for them, but can also experience new ways of learning.

Learners and teachers who take account of different learning styles when planning activities, work in styles that are most comfortable for them, but can also experience new ways of learning. One model for this is the 4MAT system developed by Bernice McCarthy. She speaks of four styles:

1- Innovative learners who seek meaning, need to be personally involved, perceive information concretely and process reflectively, are innovative and imaginative. They ask "Why?"

2- Analytic learners who seek facts, need to know what the experts think, perceive abstractly and process reflectively, are interested in ideas and concepts more than people, are data collectors, create concepts and models. They ask, "What?"

3- Common sense learners who seek usability, need to know how things work, learn by testing theories in ways that seem sensible, perceive abstractly and process actively, need hands-on experiences, have limited tolerance for ambiguity, develop practical application of ideas. They ask, "How does this work?"

4- Dynamic learners who seek hidden possibilities, need to know what can be done with things, learn by trial and error, perceive concretely and process actively, are adaptable to change, intuitive, and carry out plans. They ask, "What can this become?"

McCarthy's model, 4MAT, involves teaching in a way that uses the strengths of all four types. The instructional process goes around a "circle of learning": from a concrete experience,

through reflection to concept formation, practice, and planning and carrying out work which involves the new concepts. This model of instruction is particularly useful in planning group activities, but can also be used in a one-on-one situation.

How useful are "learning styles?" At one extreme, Adrianne Bonham says, "The general view of learning styles is one of thinly developed theory and weak instruments, supported by fragmented research, often in settings not typical of adult education." At the other extreme are the claims that all educational ills can be solved by paying attention to learning style. The truth probably lies between the two. The notion of learning style is useful in at least these ways:

1- To help tutors be aware that we all learn differently

2- To help tutors be aware of their own style and how it affects their teaching

3- In designing methods that meet the needs of all students

4- To help students realize how they learn best

Educational diagnosis, continually observing and discussing with the student what works and what doesn't is probably the most important part of "diagnosis".

CONCLUSIONS

When we talk about adults with learning disabilities or dyslexia we mean people whose intelligence is at least "normal" but who have difficulty learning to read, write, and spell because of some disability in their language processing, a disability which is probably physiological. There are others who have a hard time learning to read because they have limited intelligence or a physical disability in hearing or vision. Some of the methods used with dyslexic learners may also be helpful for these people, but they are not learning disabled.

Many coordinators mentioned a need for determining who is learning disabled. To a large extent the important issue is how the person learns and doesn't learn. This is an issue with any student. Educational diagnosis, continually observing and discussing with the student what works and what doesn't is

probably the most important part of "diagnosis". While a professional diagnosis is usually not available and not always helpful, it can be a relief to students (and tutors) to understand that the reason they have had difficulty is because of a learning disability. This understanding can relieve the guilt and poor self-concept on one hand and lead to assurance that though it may not be easy, together the student and tutor can discover ways the student can learn. Going through checklists together is one way student and tutor can reach this understanding.

While a professional diagnosis is usually not available and not always helpful, it can be a relief to students (and tutors) to understand that the reason they have had difficulty is because of a learning disability.

Current research seems to indicate that most learning disabled people have problems with processing the sounds of language. They may not "hear" the different phonemes or sound that make up a word so they have difficulty in breaking a word into sounds for spelling and in blending sounds for reading. They may also be slower in retrieving the word they want from their memory. So, for example, when shown a picture of a laundromat, they understand that this is a place where people pay to wash and dry clothes, but they are slower in retrieving the word "laundromat". Problems with short-term memory complicate learning. Some learning disabled adults do have problems with visual memory and processing, for example the reversals we have tended to associate with 'dyslexia,' but most have problems in the area of memory and auditory processing.

Learning disabled adults don't easily pick up the phonetic cues as they begin to learn basic sight words. They may not be able to determine where the words clear and clean are different. Using context, both semantic and syntactical, is more useful than phonics for learning disabled readers. At the same time, some very specific instruction in phonics, particularly beginning sounds and recognition of common syllables like ing and tion is important. Phonics can help in word recognition, but should not be used to the point of "sounding" out words.
Learning how to learn is at least as important as specific instruction in reading for learning disabled adults. The student and tutor working together discuss learning style and which learning styles works best for the students. The characteristics of a good reader, particularly reading for meaning are stressed. And specific strategies like LOOK, COVER, WRITE, CHECK for spelling are taught.

Much of what is useful for adults with learning disabilities is useful for all adult learners. Learning how we learn, discovering how learning style affects our teaching and learning, reading as a search for meaning, not decoding—these are relevant to all of us.

Much of what is useful for adults with learning disabilities is useful for all adult learners.

RESOURCES/ BIBLIOGRAPHY

(Copies of these materials are available at the Center for Literacy Studies, or at the UTK library as noted)

L. Adrianne Bonham (1988) 'Learning style use: in need of perspective, *Lifelong Learning*, 11(5): 14-19.

Jane Callisle, Cynthia Klein and Aisling O'Reilly (1988) *Report on the ALBSU Project on Specific Learning Difficulties: March, 1986- March, 1988*, London, UK: Adult Literacy and Basic Skills Unit.

Marie Carbo (1987) "Deprogramming Reading Failure: Giving Unequal Learners An Equal Chance," Phi Delta Kappan, November: 197-202.
Looks at effects of learning style on children's beginning reading; not directly relevant, but thought-provoking.

Grace M. Fernald (1943) *Remedial Techniques in Basic School Subjects*, McGraw-Hill. (See also summary in Appendix B.)

A.L. Jorm (1983) *The Psychology of Reading and Spelling Disabilities*, Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1983. (Available at UTK Library.)
This book is heavy going, but good for understanding the nature of learning disabilities. It is written in reference to children, but applies to adults as well.

Donald Keefe and Valerie Meyer (1988) 'Profiles of and instructional techniques for adult disabled readers,' *Journal of Reading*, 31(7):614-619.
(See summary in Appendix C.)

Cynthia Klein (1989) "Specific Learning Difficulties," *ALBSU Newsletter* No. 32, Winter.
This summary of the ALBSU Learning Difficulties Program is a very good introduction to the issues, and has many helpful ideas which have been drawn upon for this report. Reprint available from Adult Literacy & Basic Skills Unit, Kingsbourne House, 229/231 High Holborn, London WC1V 7DA, U.K.

Bernice McCarthy (1980)*The 4MAT System, Teaching to Learning Styles with Right/Left Techniques*, EXCEL Inc., Oak Brook, IL (Available in UTK Law Library)

A good introduction to learning style and how to plan instruction which includes all learning styles; written with children's classrooms in mind, but has adaptable ideas.

Robin Millar and Cynthia Klein (1986) *Making Sense of Spelling*, London, UK: Inner London Education Authority (ILEA), Diagnostic Center for Learning Difficulties. (See summary in Appendix D.)

Dorothy Montgomery (1986) *STALD: Screening Test for Adults with Learning Difficulties and Strategies for Teaching Adults with Learning Difficulties);* Education Service Center Region 9, Wichita Falls, Texas. (An ERIC document available through UTK Library.)

The foreword describes this as "a testing instrument, a remediation model keyed to it, and instructional resources for those working with adults... It aims to screen adult learners individually to identify if characteristics common to those with learning difficulties are present, and if so, to prescribe specific materials and methods known to be successful with them."

I have not used either the test or many of the materials mentioned. I doubt if it's the magic solution, but the test can probably be helpful in beginning to learn about diagnosis and there are some useful suggestions about materials. Does not really involve the student in the process of diagnosis or program planning.

Edward Polloway, J. David Smith and James Patton (1988) "Learning Disabilities: An Adult Developmental Perspective," *Learning Disabilities Quarterly*, Vol. 11 (Summer): 265-272.

The nature of learning disabilities in adults is examined in relation to models and research in adult development.

Jovita Martin Ross (1987) "Learning disabled adults: Who are they and what do we do with them?", *Lifelong Learning*, 11(3):4-8.

A good general survey of the issues; does not contain a lot of specific suggestions, but does consider effects of learning disability beyond learning to read; useful for understanding what can be happening to learning disabled students.

Margaret Snowling (1987) Dyslexia. Basil Blackwell, Inc.
Probably more helpful than Jorm's book; surveys the research about what dyslexia really is, how it affects the reading process. (Available at UTK Library)

Linda Thistlethwaite (1986) "The adult beginning reader: Assessment/discussion/instruction, *Lifelong Learning* 10 (2): 4-7.
A good discussion of working with any adult beginning reader; not aimed at learning disabled readers, but with many good ideas.

William Vaugh (1985) "Project ABLE: Help for Adults with Learning Disabilities," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 66(6): 444-445.
Description of program in Connecticut which combines individual and group work.

Margaret Walsh (1979) 'Miscue analysis,' A.L.U. Newsletter (England), 5(June). (This article is reproduced in Appendix A.)

Bernice L. Y. Wong (1987) "How do the results of metacognitive research impact on the learning disabled individual?" *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 10:189-195.
A helpful discussion of metacognition and how this research can help the learning disabled and their teachers.

APPENDIX A

This explanation of miscue analysis by Margaret Walsh is from the ALU Newsletter (No. 5, June 1979)

Miscue Analysis

Often the most obvious truisms are worth repeating. For instance, reading is only any real use if you read for meaning and yet we often still concentrate on errors of recognition, often when they make little real difference to the sense of the piece being read. We all use approximations when calculating (sometimes we also need exact answers) whereas reading often tends to be seen as 'right' or 'wrong'.

This article by Margaret Walsh, the Literacy Organiser for South Glamorgan, looks at this truism by describing a useful technique called Miscue Analysis.

Why use it?

It's fun! It means that the tutor is actively involved while listening to a student read. No more bored looks on the tutor's face as the student practises at reading. There's more to hearing students read than merely supplying the unknown word — or helping him to sound it out.

Did you ever want to be a detective? If so now's your chance. Teachers of reading should be like detectives — always questioning. Why did my student say that? Has it altered the meaning? If not, does it really matter? Is it a good mistake or a bad mistake? The more we probe, the more we learn about the process of reading. Miscue analysis throws valuable light on this process but . . .

What is it?

Miscue Analysis? The analysis of miscues: but what's a miscue? The American, Kenneth Goodman maintains that reading involves more than merely looking closely at each letter and each word. He suggests that as teachers of reading, we should take a much broader view of the subject. We should help students select the most useful cues in order to produce the correct guess the first time.

Where an incorrect guess is made a miscue occurs. The term error is seldom used because of its negative association with failure. The tutor's task is to observe the miscues, try to analyse them with the student, and decide upon a strategy for future work. In helping the reader to select the most useful cues they are working together, towards more proficient reading. Consider the following passages: —

Example 1

In the first passage about John Cameron, the following words were substituted

- 'performance' for 'programme'
- 'hadn't changed' for 'hated change'
- 'clean' for 'clear' (but immediately corrected)
- 'found' for 'fond' (but immediately corrected)

Although different from the text, the first two words do not dramatically alter the sense of the passage. The reader has substituted noun for noun, and verb for verb clause. He is reading intelligently. His substitutions are acceptable. The word 'performance' looks like 'programme'. In the same way as the clause 'hadn't changed' looks like 'hated change'.

The reader was obviously satisfied that this sounded like language, and made reasonable sense.

However, as soon as he had substituted 'clean' for 'clear', he probably noticed the following word 'up' and realised that 'clean up' didn't make sense, in that context. Until this point the sentence sounded reasonable "and watched his robot clean . . ." But as soon as he noticed what followed, he was immediately able to give the correct word.

Similarly he substituted the word 'found' for 'fond'. These again look very much alike but as soon as he had said the word 'found' he knew that it didn't sound right. He probably guessed at the last two words, and knew that by using the word 'found' the sentence was meaningless. He re-examined the word and immediately read 'fond'.

HE WAS ALL THE TIME READING FOR MEANING

He was selecting the cues which he felt

Example 1 Actual Passage from Book

Now John Cameron lived alone-apart from his household robot. And his life certainly did run smoothly. Some people changed their robot's programme every day, and left it in the 'Transit' position, that is, ready to receive orders. But not John.

He was a rigid man who hated change. He wanted every day to be the same as the one before. So HIS robot was programmed once and for all.

One weekend, he sat down after breakfast as usual, and watched his robot clear up the dishes. There were times when he felt almost fond of it. It was the silence he liked. Robots never argued-not like wives.

(From 'Knockout' 'The Man Who Loved Robots' by Jon Cornt)

Passage as read by Student

Now John Cameron lived alone-apart from his household robot. And his life certainly did run smoothly. Some people changed their robot's performance every day, and left it in the 'Transit' position, that is, reading to receive orders. But not John.

He was a rigid man who hadn't changed. He wanted every day to be the same as the one before. So HIS robot was programmed once and for all.

One weekend, he sat down after breakfast as usual, and watched his robot clean clear up the dishes. There were times when he felt almost found fond of it. It was the silence he liked. Robots never argued-not like wives.

were most useful to him and when one didn't work, he tried another.

At all times he considered one or other of the following:

- ☐ The look of the word
- ☐ The meaning of the word in the sentence
- ☐ How the word sounded i.e. grammar

Example 2

Now let's consider the second passage 'Wild Wheels' where the following substitutions were made:

- ☐ 'camera' for 'cinema'
- ☐ 'the' for 'to'
- ☐ 'dropping from' for 'dropped on'
- ☐ 'plans' for 'planes'
- ☐ 'arches' for 'horses'
- ☐ 'already' for 'really'
- ☐ 'move' for 'more'

In nearly every instance the substituted word changed the meaning of the sentence and the passage. Therefore each was unacceptable.

However, on closer examination we notice that most look like the original (apart from 'arches' for 'horses' and this because of the accompanying illustration.)

This reader is paying no attention whatever to the meaning of the passage — he is concerned only with reaching the end. The tutor might suggest that because he has substituted the word 'plans' for 'planes' he needs a revision of the 'magic e'. This may well be the case, but it would probably be more helpful to him if the tutor suggested he thought about what he was reading, and tried to get some meaning from it. Perhaps he needs to go back a stage and read something easier. Simple cloze exercises, — where one fills in missing words — would be useful. When filling in the blanks he would be learning the art of prediction which is invaluable when learning to read.

Of the two readers, clearly the first was more proficient. Not because of the number of miscues, but because of the kind of miscues. By examining his miscues we have discovered that he reads with understanding, and always searches for meaning. It is important to stress that it is not necessarily what you read, but how you go about it, that is all important.

How often do we point out every word that is misread — whether or not it alters the meaning? How soul-destroying that must be! How can our student possibly read for meaning if he is always being interrupted or told "No, it's not 'dad' — it's 'father'." "It says 'a' not 'the'."

Marking System

Errors can be recorded in different ways, but the chart below includes the most useful symbols.

Practice makes perfect

Now that we know a little about miscue analysis, we are ready to try it out. As with everything else we learn by doing.

CHART

ERROR	SYMBOL	
Non-response	_work_	Needs prompting after a few seconds or asks for word.
Substitution	play work	Write substitution above appropriate part of text.
Insertion	his for ∧ work	Indicate by insertion sign, and write inserted word above.
Omission	(work)	Circle word, words, or parts of words.
Repetition	work	Underline words repeated.
Correction	Ⓒ play work	Place small C beside corrected word.
Reversal	work ⎫ hard o⎭n	Symbol that shows which parts of letters, words, phrases or clauses have been interchanged.
Hesitation	work/hard	Hesitation between two words.

Example 2 Actual Passage from Book

(From 'Start' by Lewis Jones published by Longman)

Wild Wheels

In the early days of the cinema, the film star was often on a train. Stuntmen jumped on to trains from bridges, dropped on to trains from planes, fought on trains, ran along the tops of trains, jumped from trains to the ground, and on to trains from horses.

Fights on top of a train are not easy. A train not only runs forwards, it also moves from side to side. And winds can be strong. In the cinema, we think one fighter is trying to throw the other off. Often, he's really trying to hold him on.

Today we more often see fast cars in films. In the early cinema, cars were usually funny. Not now.

In the early days of the cinema stuntmen jumped onto trains from bridges

Passage as read by Student

Wild Wheels

In the early days of the camera, the film star was often on a train. Stuntmen jumped on the trains from bridges, dropping from to trains from plans, fought on trains, ran along the tops of trains, jumped from trains to the ground, and on to trains from arches.

Fights on top of a train are not easy. A train not only runs forwards, it also moves from side to side. And winds can be strong. In the camera, we think one fighter is trying to throw the other off. Often, he's already trying to hold him on.

Today we move often see fast cars in films. In the early camera, cars were usually funny. Not now.

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However, before we begin, here are some points to remember.

1. Put the student at ease.
2. Tell him that you want him to read the passage through, without any interruptions or promptings from yourself. But stress that this isn't a test of any sort.
3. Encourage him to guess or skip any word he finds difficult.
4. Tell him that when he has finished reading, you will ask him to retell the story in his own words.

Retelling

This is an important aspect as it shows the reader's ability to retain meaning. It is preferable to asking direct questions, as these would give cues to the reader about the significant parts of the passage.

The better reader will probably be able to retell most of the story. Even if he makes slight alterations to the original it probably won't alter the overall meaning.

Following the unaided retelling, ask questions about

- ☐ areas the reader may have omitted
- ☐ character recall and development (Who else was in the story? What was he like etc?)
- ☐ events
- ☐ plot
- ☐ theme

What material should we use?

The passage should be new to the student, complete in itself, with a beginning, middle and end. It should be difficult enough to ensure the students will produce miscues.

Miscues tell us whether a reader is understanding and seeking meaning from the passage. What do we learn about the three students who read this passage?

Uncorrected substitutions are very revealing. Do they alter the meaning?

(A) 'large' for 'load'?

(B) 'to point' for 'and pointing'?

(C) 'lots' for 'load'?

Similarly with omissions — do they alter the meaning?

(a) 'it'

(b) 'soon'

It would appear that A is a less proficient reader than B and C, both of whom are continually looking for meaning when reading — something we must always encourage students to do. We are now able to consider reading in a new light — not merely counting mistakes but analysing miscues.

Good luck with the detective work!

A

I live in a flat and look after myself.
As my clothes get dirty I put them in a black plastic
bag which is delivered by the council for rubbish.
On the weekend I take the bag to the launderette.
One day I left it with the attendant lady. She said
I could pick it up in an hour.
Well I went for a pint in the pub. Then I went
back to the launderette. As soon as I opened the
door the lady was waving her hands and pointing to
a load of rubbish. I soon realised that I had left the
weekly rubbish bag by mistake.

B

I live in a flat and look after myself.
As my clothes get dirty I put them in a black/plastic
bag which is delivered by the council for rubbish.
On the weekend I take the bag to the launderette.
One day I left it with the attendant lady. She said
I could pick it up in an hour.
Well I went for a pint in the pub. Then I went
back to the launderette. As soon as I opened the
door the lady was waving her hands and pointing to
a load of rubbish. I soon realised that I had left the
weekly rubbish bag by mistake.

C

I live in a flat and look after myself.
As my clothes get dirty I put them in a black plastic
bag which is delivered by the council for rubbish.
On the weekend I take the bag to the launderette.
One day I left it with the attendant lady. She said
I could pick it up in an hour.
Well I went for a pint in the pub. Then I went
back to the launderette. As soon as I opened the
door the lady was waving her hands and pointing to
a load of rubbish. I soon realised that I had left the
weekly rubbish bag by mistake.

APPENDIX B

SUMMARY OF FERNALD MULTI-SENSORY APPROACH

From Fernald, *Remedial Techniques in Basic School Subjects*

Introduction

This method is for use with students who have no success with other methods. Fernald developed it for those with "total or extreme disability." Other methods should certainly be tried first.

Stage 1

Because of its tremendous possibilities and wide usage, the Fernald-Keller Approach should be studied in detail so that all four stages are understood by the teacher. Stage I seeks to motivate the student and get him to want to learn. New words are taught through the use of the tracing technique, along with visual and auditory emphasis. Once the student has developed facility in the use of the tracing methods and has accumulated a group of sight words which he can use, he moves into Stage 2.

Teacher	Student
1. Finds a word the student wants to learn.	**Selects word to be learned.**
2. Asks student to use word in a sentence or to give the meaning.	**Responds appropriately.**
3. Asks "How many parts do you hear?"	**Responds. With teacher rendering needed help, the student verifies his answer by dictionary**

Teacher	Student
4. In script with crayon, writes the word. - Says word - Says each syllable without distortion, as each part is written. (Pronunciation of each syllable begins with and ends with the initial stroke of the syllable.) - Going from left to right crosses t's and dots i's. -Underlines each syllable while pronouncing the syllable.	**Student observes teacher.**
5. Demonstrates tracing technique. - Index and second finger held still while tracing over words. - Says word. - Says syllable on initial stroke of each syllable. (Without distortion) - Crosses t's and dots i's from left to right. - Says word. - Repeats word until student is ready to trace.	**Student observes teacher.** **Traces the word following the procedure demonstrated until he thinks he can write the word without the copy**
6. Checks student's tracing technique.	**Pronounces. Says each syllable as he begins to make it. Says again as he underlines each syllable.**

Teacher	Student
- When student hesitates or makes an error, stops him. - Records number of tracings - Praises success	
7. Checks writing of word.	
- No erasures. - Does not stress errors.	**Compares his writing to original copy** **If successful, dates paper and files word.** **If unsuccessful, either retraces, or makes a second attempt.**
8. Checks retention the next day.	

Stage 2

In this stage the teacher-student "step-by-step" procedure in writing the word is still followed except that the student no longer traces the word. The student makes use of oral and auditory modalities. He looks at the word, pronounces the word after the tutor, watches the tutor write the word, then writes the word without looking at the copy, saying the word as he writes it.

Stage 3

The student reads the word (with tutor help if necessary) says it and writes the word.

Stage 4

The student recognizes new words from their similarity to words or parts of words he has already learned.

APPENDIX C

SUMMARY OF STRATEGIES FOR TEACHING LEARNING DISABLED ADULTS.

From Keefe and Meyer, 'Profiles of and Instructional Techniques for Adult Disabled Readers'

Some suggestions from Donald Keefe and Valerie Meyer for working with students at various levels. They discuss "disabled" readers without distinguishing between learning disabled and other reasons for disability, but their suggestions are practical.

For non-readers:

(1) Make a book using words the student recognizes from the environment. Cut advertisements with words like "coke" or "McDonald's" and put on one page. On the opposite page write the word in large print.
(2) Find highly predictable stories with patterns that lead the student to "read" the text.
(3) Write sentence stems such as "I can _____" or "I like _____." Have the student complete the sentence with his/her own words and read.

For readers who can read "just a little," who can read simple texts with help, it is important to stress reading as "making meaning" rather than sounding out words. For this group:

(1) Use language experience stories and tape to read at home.
(2) Encourage learners to skip unknown words and self correct miscues.
(3) Encourage learners to take risks and make guesses, for example figuring out what an ad or logo is with only a small part presented.

Additional ways to focus on meaning for readers with more skill:

(1) Silly Sentences with one word which does not make sense-"I smell with my knees." Ask the reader to figure out which word does not make sense.

(2) Written conversation between the student and tutor on some event, your feelings about work, your children, etc. The conversation is started by the tutor who briefly writes what s/he wants to say and the student responds- in writing. Keep it simple without concern for spelling or grammar.
(3) Flash card directions to force readers to read more than one word at a time. Place a few words of direction on a card. Flash each card and ask the learner to do what the card says, e.g., "Put your hands on the table." Encourage "chunking" all the words in one glance. It may take four or five flashes. Later use two directions per card.

To work on comprehension with more advanced readers:

(1) Use key word predicting activities. From a story or chapter select about 10 key words. give the list to the student and have him/her predict the content of the story. Then read to see if the predictions are correct.
(2) "GIST" requires the reader(s) to reduce the first sentence of a passage to 3 or 4 words, then the first two sentences to 5 or 6 words, three sentences to 7 or 8 words, etc. until the whole paragraph is reduced to 15 or so words which are the gist of the passage.
(3) Prepare directions for a simple card game leaving out a crucial instruction. After playing the game ask the reader to determine what has been left out.

A useful article by Bill Cosby, "How to read faster," suggests previewing, skimming, and clustering to increase speed and comprehension. It is available in reprints and as an 11" x 17" poster from:

"Power of the Printed Word"
International Paper Company, Dept. 3
P.O. Box 954
Madison Square Station
New York, NY 10010

APPENDIX D

SUMMARY OF SPELLING- LOOK, COVER, WRITE, CHECK

From Millar and Klein, *Making Sense of Spelling*

Use lists of words taken from students' writing, common words, and words with common patterns. Words with confusing patterns like -el and -le should not be used in the same list. Divide a page into 4 or 5 columns. Write each word correctly in the first column or make sure the student has copied the list correctly. Explain to the student that they should:

> LOOK at the word, noting any particular difficulty and say it aloud. Close their eyes and try to visualize the word.
>
> COVER the word. Say it aloud.
>
> WRITE the word in column 2. Say it as they write it.
>
> CHECK that the word is correct. If not, copy the correct spelling above or near the original, paying attention to the mistakes. If a mistake has been made it is important to correct it by writing the whole word again not just by changing or adding letters. The experience of writing the whole word is important (cursive is best).

Next day, repeat the process and spell each word in column 3.

Two or three days later, repeat the process and spell the words in column 4.

General memory aids which any individual student may find useful:

Teaching students to beat out syllables and then write them as they say them.

Highlighting the words with colored pens. This can be useful to help students focus on the bit of the word they are misspelling.

Saying the names of the letters, spelling in rhythm. This is useful for confusing endings such as **-cial, -ght**, etc.

Understanding the derivation of words (**television**: **tele** means "far," **vis** means "see").

Memory aids for students with auditory perceptual difficulties:

Finding words within words. This may need to be demonstrated to the student. (**Cap/a/city** for capacity; **we/at/her** for weather).

Reinforcing spelling by finding words of similar letter patterns (**please - ease - disease; sound - round - found**).

Memory aids for students with visual memory difficulties:

Exaggerating pronunciations of words: **Wed/nes/day** for Wednesday; the student is advised to "say it funny" while writing it.

Understanding the structure of words, for example morpheme, root words, suffixes, prefixes, etc.

Provide format for building on root words: for example appoint, disappoint, disappointment, disappointed, etc.

SUPPLEMENTARY READINGS

SESSION THREE

ADULTS WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES: AN OVERVIEW FOR THE ADULT EDUCATOR

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1989

ASSESSMENT

This section identifies key issues in the assessment of adults with LD and describes a number of assessment models. The question of screening versus diagnosis is examined, and guidelines for selection of diagnostic instruments are presented.

Issues and Models

If there is one caveat in the assessment of adults with learning disabilities, it might be that assessment is useful to the extent that it provides a means for helping the adult to live more fully. This criterion should be considered especially in the context of the adult previously unidentified as LD. Diagnosis can serve a useful purpose insofar as it determines eligibility for resources and support services that are not otherwise available to the individual. Additionally, a comprehensive diagnostic evaluation or reevaluation (in the case of the person identified at a younger age) can serve a viable function if it provides direction in working with the adult to determine future goals, select appropriate educational and career development programs, and develop strategies for an individualized intervention plan.

Given the scarcity of formal diagnostic tools appropriate for assessing adults with LD (Coles 1980; Ross 1987), it is even more imperative that formal testing instruments not be used in isolation, but rather be incorporated as part of a comprehensive assessment process. Vogel (1989) noted that the clinician should be trained in formal and informal assessment procedures, with sources of information including interviews, self-report, and direct observation. Vogel also noted that referrals for evaluation of adults are rarely made for the purpose of diagnosis alone, but also to develop a plan of action to enhance attainment of goals. The purpose(s) of the referral will to some extent influence the nature of the assessment process. Different procedures are appropriate for the community college (Best et al. 1986), vocational rehabilitation services (Newill, Goyette, and Fogarty 1984), or adult basic education programs (Hoy and Gregg 1984a-e), three of the primary adult education contexts discussed in current literature. In cases in which the adult has not been previously identified as having a learning disability, differential diagnosis becomes problematic across settings; an accurate history of medical, educational, and social influences on the learning problems may be hard to obtain and concomitant emotional problems may be difficult to rule out retrospectively as primary conditions.

Another unique feature of the assessment process for adults as compared to that of children is the increasing importance of the clinician-client relationship (Vogel 1989). The adult can be a valuable source of information regarding perceptions of personal strengths and weaknesses and regarding goals for the future. As a measure to reduce in part the negative

effects testing may have on the adult's self-esteem, Vogel suggested that the clinician shift the emphasis to information-seeking, discovery, and problem-solving aspects of the assessment process, an emphasis that requires the involvement of the adult in the investigative process.

Having identified several of the key issues in assessment of adults suspected to have learning disabilities, it is appropriate at this point to share several comprehensive models of assessment. Hoy and Gregg (1984a), in a guide to assessment for adult basic educators, stressed that appraisal and assessment must be ongoing and systematic. They proposed a seven-step evaluation sequence (p. 3):

1. Know why and for what the adult is being assessed.
2. Collect background information.
3. Interview the adult.
4. Observe and make a formal evaluation.
5. Organize and interrelate the formal and informal data.
6. Search for patterns of strengths and weaknesses.
7. Plan instructional strategies.

A goal of this sequence is the interpretation of input and output errors as a means of uncovering strengths and weaknesses. Hoy and Gregg stressed the importance of interviews between students and teachers as a source of otherwise unattainable information about the student, providing guidelines for structuring such an interview. They included in this discussion a list of instruments appropriate for assessment of cognitive abilities, language abilities, academic skills, written expression, and personality. In other parts of this series for ABE teachers, the authors specifically discuss assessment of reading, written language, and mathematics (Hoy and Gregg 1984b,c,d).

Johnson (1987) divided the assessment process into four key components: (1) current concerns and status, (2) history, (3) objective testing, and (4) clinical observation. She emphasized the importance of observing the adult as he or she completes the various tasks, which can be revealing in themselves. The individual's rate of processing and output, reactions to timed tests and fatigue, use of compensatory strategies, and recurring patterns across formal and informal tasks can be especially informative. Johnson also presented several principles to consider in the evaluation of achievement and cognitive processes. Tests and tasks should be designed to assess input, integration, output, and feedback modes, since processing difficulties may occur at any point along this chain. Because learners may vary in the affected modalities of learning (visual, auditory, haptic, and so on), an effort should also be made to assess intrasensory, multisensory, and intersensory learning responses. This assessment not only can indicate the weakest learning modalities but can also yield information about modality strengths, difficulties with sensory overload, and difficulties with translating information across modalities. Both verbal and nonverbal learning should be assessed, because an apparent modality strength or weakness may not affect verbal and nonverbal learning equally. For instance, knowing that a person who forgets his or her way spatially in familiar surroundings can nonetheless learn directions through maps written in words is useful to planning an intervention

program. Finally, Johnson recommended assessing both simultaneous and sequential processing. Johnson and Blalock's (1987) *Adults with Learning Disabilities* provides a general description of principles of assessment and diagnosis as well as separate discussion of assessment procedures used in a university-based clinic. Individual chapters are devoted to the topics of reading, written language, mathematics, abstract reasoning and problem solving, and nonverbal learning.

Assessment procedures at the Kingsbury Center (Zangwill and Greene 1986) are specially designed to assist adults whose coping strategies have failed after their initial successful transition from school to work. A comprehensive formal testing battery is used to assess intellectual and cognitive abilities and performance in the areas of reading, written language, and mathematics. In addition, the *Myers-Briggs Type Indicator* (Briggs and Myers 1983) and the *Harrington-O'Shea Career Decision-Making System* (Harrington and O'Shea 1985) help to clarify job-related abilities, strategies, and values. These standardized procedures are supplemented by informal assessment procedures, behavioral observations, and interviews to determine client concerns and coping limitations, present coping strengths, strategies that have been successful, and new situational demands requiring new strategies. Intervention planning then centers around specific coping strategies as well as remediation in academic or skills areas relevant to work or social requirements.

Newill, Goyette, and Fogarty (1984) provided an evaluation plan that is designed to be consistent with requirements for determining vocational rehabilitation (VR) eligibility. Because the VR program is based on eligibility rather than on entitlement, individuals with LD who have been formerly served in school systems may not be classified as eligible for VR services, unless there are indications that the learning disability has caused substantial handicap to employment (Vogel 1989). The Rehabilitation Services Administration also requires diagnosis by a physician or licensed psychologist; evidence for medical classification according to the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (American Psychiatric Association 1987) or the *International Classification of Diseases* (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 1980) is necessary to determine eligibility even though the VR definition is in terms of functional deficits (Biller 1985; Vogel 1989). The complexity of this process of determining eligibility suggests an elaborate evaluation model, such as that proposed by Newill, Goyette, and Fogarty (1984).

The first phase of the model is referred to as preliminary assessment; it includes a detailed client history (family background, medical, interpersonal, psychological, educational, and vocational factors), behavioral observations, and review of school records. The next phase, the formal diagnostic process, includes a medical history and examination, psychoeducational evaluation, and vocational assessment. The psychoeducational evaluation assesses intellectual ability, achievement, and personality functioning. Finally, Newill et al. suggested that the vocational assessment should be conducted in many forms at several levels. First, client goals are determined, then a preliminary determination of vocational aptitudes and strengths is made. The next step should involve formal assessment of both vocational aptitude or interest, including a diagnostic vocational evaluation using simulated work samples. Diagnostic guidelines can

then be applied based on the following criteria: (1) IQ of at least 80, (2) significant lags in achievement, (3) no evidence of primary emotional disturbance, and (4) no evidence of visual, auditory, motor, or mental deficiency causing the learning disability. Finally, the qualified examiner must make a clinical judgment as to the presence of SLD based upon results of the recommended procedures.

The final assessment model presented here is described in the replication manual of Project MEAL (Model for Employment and Adult Living), supported by the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (Crawford, Crawford, and Faas 1987). Evaluation for that program included psychoeducational evaluation and assessments of preferred learning style (Brown and Cooper 1983), cognitive style (modality preference), social style (preference for working alone or in groups), and expressive style (oral or written). Also included in the assessment process were a career ability placement survey, a vocational evaluation using various interest inventories, a work personality assessment, and, in some cases, work sample tests.

Screening versus Diagnosis

Although the procedures described here are recommended as appropriate for comprehensive diagnostic evaluation, a number of more abbreviated procedures--ranging from checklists to specially designed tools--have been suggested for screening purposes. Scheiber and Talpers' (1987) book, *Unlocking Potential*, is a rich source of checklists that can be used by instructors in a variety of settings, as well as a Learning Channel Preference checklist by Lynn O'Brien designed for use by the learners themselves. The Screening Test for Adult Learning Difficulties (STALD) is an instrument designed to be administered in 35-45 minutes by supervisors, adult education teachers, or volunteer tutors (Montgomery 1986). This instrument has sections that focus on perceptual screening, word identification, and reading passages; it includes a remediation chart matching specific STALD errors to materials and methods. Such a tool can be useful for providing clues to remediation in the adult basic education or literacy settings in which complete evaluations are seldom possible. It may also help relatively untrained teachers or tutors identify alternative instructional strategies for students who may or may not have specific learning disabilities.

The major risk in the use of such screening instruments, however, is an inappropriate diagnosis of learning disability. Controversy followed the development and use of Weisel's London Procedure (Coles 1980), another instrument that took only 45 minutes and no special training to administer. O'Donnell and Wood (1981) questioned the use of that instrument to identify 95 percent of ABE students in Cleveland, Ohio, as "problem learners." They based their concern on the fact that the instrument was assembled using subtests from tests of perceptual processing in children--tests that were questionable according to accepted measurement criteria even when used with the intended population. This critique should signal the danger of using any single instrument, particularly one that may be interpreted by untrained administrators, as an indication of "diagnosed" learning disabilities.

The use of abbreviated screening procedures to identify adult populations as learning disabled for research purposes is a similarly questionable practice, one that

seems especially prevalent in studies of adult inmates. Lundak (1988), for example, recently used the ***Detroit Tests of Learning Aptitude (DTLA)--Revised*** (Hammill and Bryant 1985) to conclude that 60 percent of a prison population exhibited learning disabilities. Tevis and Orem (1985) administered the ***Revised Beta*** (Kellogg and Morton 1978), the ***Wide-Range Achievement Test*** (Jastak and Jastak 1984), and the DTLA to inmates, concluding that all 30 of the inmates with an IQ of 85 or above could be considered learning disabled in one or more areas using their criterion of a range of 2 or more years on the DTLA. In a national study "on the nature and prevalence of learning deficiencies in adult inmates" conducted by Bell, Conrad, and Suppa (1984), 1,000 inmates in 3 states were tested. For the purposes of this study, any subject found to be functioning at or below the fifth-grade level on the ***Tests of Adult Basic Education*** (1976) was considered to be learning deficient. The authors concluded that 42 percent of the sample exhibited learning deficiencies. When the ***Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale*** (Wechsler 1981) and the ***Mann-Suiter Learning Disabilities Screening Test*** (Bell, Conrad, and Suppa 1984) were administered, 25 percent of the sample and 82 percent of the learning deficient group exhibited symptoms of a learning disability. The authors suggested appropriate discretion in interpreting the results of this screening test, and they can be commended for including intelligence, achievement, family background, and educational history data in their screening battery. Nonetheless, the need for reasonable caution becomes imperative in the face of a growing number of studies attempting to use screening measures to determine prevalence in samples of previously undiagnosed adults. Because of far-reaching implications for adults diagnosed as LD, adequately funded research to permit appropriate diagnostic procedures is needed. Only as a result of such research can reliable prevalence estimates in specific subpopulations of adults, such as in penal institutions, be obtained.

Selection of Diagnostic Instruments

A variety of instruments have been used in the assessment of adults with LD. An attempt is not made here to provide a comprehensive list of formal tests. Rather, several guiding principles are suggested for consideration in test selection. Also, several of the most frequently used and reliable instruments are mentioned by name. Additional instruments and assessment procedures are provided by Johnson and Blalock (1987), Scheiber and Talpers (1987), Hoy and Gregg (1984a), and the Educational Testing Service (1986). A special focus on procedures for assessing various aspects of career development can be found in Biller (1987). For those interested in assessing learning strategies, the publications list of the Kansas Institute for Research in Learning Disabilities will be valuable.

In selecting instruments for evaluation of adults suspected to have learning disabilities, the reader is advised to consult one of the standard guides to measurement and evaluation such as the ***Tenth Mental Measurements Yearbook*** (Conoley and Kramer 1989). Such a guide will indicate whether the test norms apply to an adult population, one of the key limitations regarding many of the commonly used diagnostic instruments. Reading reviews of the tests' reliability and validity found in the measurement guides is also important to gain insight into the confidence that can be placed in the test's results. For older adults, the issue of timed tests

needs to be considered; documented slowing of perceptual speed with age (Knox 1977) may place them at a disadvantage unrelated to any learning disability. Although certain tests may be selected for the purpose of assessing performance under timed conditions, this age-related factor suggests limited use of such tests. Diagnostic strategies should be planned carefully to minimize the amount of testing necessary for adults. Many will experience self-esteem and confidence problems that, if exacerbated during extensive testing, may affect overall performance. Finally, the input given by adults during the intake interview can provide valuable information relevant to the selection of those tests that seem appropriate to measure performance in those areas for which he or she has greatest concern. When duration of testing time becomes a critical factor, the adult's self-perceived goals, strengths, and weaknesses can enhance clinical judgment in the selection of only the most necessary tools. Table 3 lists several of the most frequently cited instruments.

TABLE 3

INSTRUMENTS FOR ASSESSING ADULTS WITH LD

Instrument	Measures
Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale–Revised (Wechsler 1981)	Intellectual ability
Woodcock-Johnson Psychoeducational Battery (Woodcock and Johnson 1977)	Cognitive and achievement
Wide-Range Achievement Test (Jastak and Jastak 1984)	Academic achievement (screening)
Tests of Adult Basic Education (1984)	Academic achievement
Gray Oral Reading Tests–Revised (Wiederholt and Bryant 1986)	Reading
Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test–Revised (Dunn and Dunn 1981)	Oral comprehension
Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (Coopersmith 1981)	Self-esteem
Halstead-Reitan Neuropsychological Test Battery (Reitan 1981)	Neurological status (soft signs)

ESPECIALLY FOR ADULTS: HOW TO GET APPROPRIATE ASSESSMENT

When adults suspect they may have a learning disability, they often begin a search for solutions. They may have difficulty in locating resources to diagnose the disability. For many individuals, obtaining a diagnosis can involve locating one or more professionals to select, perform and interpret diagnostic tests

Why diagnostic testing?

The tests are needed because:

- Learning with a learning disability requires different strategies.
- Obtaining accurate diagnostics is the first step in overcoming the effects of a learning disability.

Locating appropriate testing

The diagnostic process for adults with learning disabilities is different from diagnosis and testing for children. While diagnosis for children and youth is tied to the special education process and local schools, diagnosis for adults is more directly related to problems in employment, life situations and education. An adult seeking a skilled evaluator will need to become an informed consumer, shopping for a diagnostician experienced in working with adults — oriented to both school and to work-related learning needs.

Adults should seek an evaluation appropriate to their age and career concerns. Until recently, the effects of learning disabilities on adults were not well recognized and the majority of evaluation methods were focused on children and youth. Thus, adults may need to expend additional time and effort seeking an appropriate evaluator. The checklist below is designed to help you in locating an appropriate *adult* evaluation.

What are diagnostic tests?

Diagnostic tests are a series of formal and informal measures of skills and abilities, including general level of intelligence and academic skill levels, designed to identify an individual's strengths and weaknesses and to assist in finding ways to learn and work more effectively.

Diagnostic testing may have several parts:

- a recent history — why is there a need for diagnostic tests?
- a life history — how people learn, work, their school experiences, successes and failures, childhood illnesses — looking at how individuals interact with other people using and understanding words and concepts.
- an academic history, looking at school performance and experiences to seek patterns that indicate strengths and weaknesses.
- psycho-educational tests, also called "IQ" tests, are used to measure small parts of the learning/work style such as visual memory or memory for numbers: when charted, they help define strengths and weaknesses.

Who will perform the testing?

Several local agencies can either perform the tests or refer you to diagnosticians *for adults* within your community. Check your telephone directory for:

- Adult Education / Adult Literacy Programs / Literacy Councils
- Learning Disabilities Association (LDA)
- Community Mental Health Agencies
- Counseling / Study Skills Centers at local colleges
- Guidance Counselors / Learning Specialists in private practice
- Orton Dyslexia Society
- Special Education Programs at local colleges
- State Vocational Rehabilitation Agency
- University Affiliated Hospitals

Interpretation of tests

Having the tests interpreted by someone who is familiar with adults with learning disabilities is very important. The interpretation should apply the information found in the evaluations to life situations. In addition to the evaluator, the person (or group of persons) who helps interpret evaluations may include:

- Adult Educators
- Diagnosticians
- LD Consumer Advocates
- Learning Specialists
- Rehabilitation Counselors

Questions to ask evaluators

- Have you tested many adults for learning disabilities?
- How long does testing take?
- After testing will I receive a written report and be able to meet with you to discuss the results?
- Will our discussion give me ideas on how to improve my area of disability (remediate) and how to get around my disability (compensate)?
- What is the cost of the testing?
- What insurance companies have you worked with?
- What other funding sources are available?
- How may payment for uninsured testing be worked out (extended payment, credit, etc.)?
- If there are additional questions, are you available for consultation? If so, what are the charges?

You may or may not agree with the interpretation of the tests and have the right to ask for another opinion. But remember that even if you disagree, the test results can still be accurate (although painful to accept).

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COOPER SCREENING TOOL

Evaluation Date ___/___/___ Client's Date of Birth ___/___/___ Age ____

Client's Name _____ Interviewer _____

Address _____ Agency _____

_____

City _____ State ____ Zip _____

Phone _____ _____

Reason for the Referral : _____

Referred by _____

Educational History

Last grade completed _____

Did you drop out of high school before graduation?	Yes ____
Did you dislike school?	Yes ____
Did you ever fail a subject?	Yes ____
Did you ever have to attend summer school?	Yes ____
Did you have difficulty with English classes?	Yes ____
Did you have difficulty with math classes?	Yes ____
Were you ever in special education classes?	Yes ____
Were you ever called a slow learner?	Yes ____
Were you ever diagnosed as having a learning disability?	Yes ____
If yes, at what age? _____	
Were you ever labeled (eg. LD, dyslexic, brain damaged, emotionally disturbed, retarded)?	Yes ____

What Label (s) _____ _____ _____

Reported problems _____

Summary of Educational History Total Yes ____

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COOPER SCREENING TOOL

Attention

Were you ever called hyperactive?

Are you an active person now? Yes ____
Do you have a high energy level compared to your peers? Yes ____
Do you find your mind racing when you get too many ideas at once? Yes ____
Do you have many tasks, projects, going on at once? Yes ____
Do you have a short attention span? Yes ____
Do you have a tendency to day dream? Yes ____
Do you leave doors and drawers open? Yes ____
Are you easily distracted? Yes ____

Summary of Attention Problem Total Yes ____

Motor Skills

Is the person's handwriting poor? Yes ____
Did you avoid playing sports as a child? Yes ____
Do you avoid playing sports now? Yes ____
Do you find driving difficult? Yes ____
Are you a poor driver? Yes ____
Do you drop things a lot? Yes ____
Do you consider yourself clumsy? Yes ____
Do you have problems with hand/eye coordination? Yes ____

Summary of Motor Problems Total Yes ____

Auditory processing

Do you find yourself listening to more than one conversation at a time? Yes ____
Can you rhyme the word CAT:
SLOW _____ _____ _____
QUICK: _____ _____ _____
Has difficulty rhyming? Yes ____
Do you often mishear words that are said to you? Yes ____
Do you misinterpret what is said to you? Yes ____
Do you often take things that are said too literally? Yes ____
Do you have trouble paying attention to long conversations or lectures? Yes ____
Do you have difficulty hearing what people say when there are other people talking? Yes ____
Does your mind race about thinking about the first things that was said to you? Yes ____
Do you have difficulty with spelling? Yes ____
Do you have difficulty sounding out words? Yes ____

Summary of Auditory Problems Total Yes ____

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Right and Left

Do you confuse right and left. Yes ____
Check How do you know your right and left sides? _____
Did you reverse letters or numbers as a child? Yes ____
Do you ever make letter or number reversals now? Yes ____
Do you have to stop and think when someone tells you to turn right or left? Yes ____
Do you have difficulty in making choices (menues, activities, dressing etc.)? Yes ____
Do you have to stop and think which way to turn a screw? Yes ____
Do you point one way when you mean another? Yes ____
Do you have difficulty with North, South, East and West? Yes ____
Do you find True and False questions difficult? Yes ____
Do you find yourself stopping at green lights? Yes ____
Do you get lost in large buildings or malls? Yes ____
Do you have difficulty reading maps? Yes ____

Summary of Right/Left Problems Total Yes ____

Organization

Are you disorganized? Yes ____
Do you collect things? Yes ____
Is your room messy? Yes ____
Do you misplace or lose things, especially little things like keys, combs, glasses, pens, pencils, homework, tools etc.? Yes ____
Are you often late? Yes ____
Do you have difficulty organizing your thoughts when you write? Yes ____
Do you have difficulty organizing your thoughts when you speak? Yes ____

Summary of Organizational Skills Total Yes ____

Employment

Are you unemployed? Yes ____
Have you ever been fired from a job? Yes ____
Do you have any difficulty completing tasks on any job? Yes ____
Do you have difficulty learning new jobs? Yes ____
Have you ever been a client of Vocational Rehabilitation? Yes ____

What types of jobs have you had? _____

_____

Summary of Employment Total Yes ____

Emotional

Are you a moody person? Yes ____
Are you a nervous person? Yes ____
Are you a worrier? Yes ____
Any problems with drugs or alcohol? Yes ____
Do you, or did you ever, have test anxiety? Yes ____
Did you ever go blank, or freeze, on a test? Yes ____

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Did you ever have a head injury? Yes ____

Summary of Emotional State Total Yes ____

Social

Are you shy? Yes ____
Do you have difficulty making friends? Yes ____
Do you have only a few friends? Yes ____
Do you have difficulty getting along with members of the opposite sex? Yes ____
Do you consider yourself a loner? Yes ____
Do you have any children Yes ____ No ____
Do any of them have difficulty with learning? Yes ____
Do you have any siblings? Yes ____ No ____
Do any of them have learning problems? Yes ____
Parent's occupations (F) _____ (M) _____
Did either have any learning problems that you are aware of? Yes ____

Summary of Social Skills Total Yes ____

Oral Communication

Do you believe that your speaking vocabulary is smaller than others? Yes ____
When you speak, do people have difficulty understanding what you are trying to say? Yes ____
Are there any words which you have difficulty pronouncing or get you tongue-tied? Yes ____
Do you have a tendency to ramble? Yes ____
Do you talk too much? Check does the person say too much? Yes ____
Do you interrupt others? Yes ____

Summary of Oral Communication Total Yes ____

Writing

Do you have a spelling problem? Yes ____
Is writing difficult for you? Yes ____
Do you avoid writing? Yes ____
Do you have difficulty deciding what to write about? Yes ____
Do you have difficulty taking notes? Yes ____
Do you speak better than you can write? Yes ____
Do you find that when you write your sentences are incomplete? Check Yes ____
Do your sentences run on? Yes ____
Do you have difficulty with grammar? Yes ____
Do you have difficulty with punctuation? Yes ____
Do you skip words when you write? Yes ____
Do you procrastinate with writing assignments? Yes ____

Summary of Writing Total Yes ____

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Print your full name.
Write your full name in cursive, script, sign your name.
Write a sentence about why you are here.
If not able, can you write a sentence about anything?
Write or print the alphabet
Write the numbers 1 to 20
Draw a picture.

Is the person's writing slanted?	Yes ____
Is the person's handwriting difficult to read?	Yes ____
Are the letters oversized for his/her age?	Yes ____
Is the alphabet incomplete?	Yes ____
Does the person mix capital and small letters?	Yes ____
Are there any reversals	Yes ____
Does the person write the second digit before the one when writing teen numbers?	Yes ____
Does the person hold the pen or pencil in an unusual way?	Yes ____
Is the person's drawing disportionate, too simple, very unusual?	Yes ____

Noted Problems _____

_____

_____

Summary of Handwrting Total Yes ____

Math Skills

Do you often count on your fingers?	Yes ____
Do you forget your additions facts?	Yes ____
Check 9 + 7 ____ 8 + 6 ____	
Do you forget your subtraction facts?	Yes ____
Check 17 - 9 ____ 12 - 5 ____	
Did you have difficulty learning the multiplication tables?	Yes ____
Do you ever forget them now	Yes ____
Check 8 x 7 ____ 7 x 6 ____ 9 x 6 ____	

Summary of Number Facts Total Yes ____

Math Skills

Was it difficult for you to learn long division?	Yes ____
Is it still difficult for you?	Yes ____
Was it difficult for you to learn fractions?	Yes ____
Is it still difficult for you?	Yes ____
Was it difficult for you to learn decimals?	Yes ____
Is it still difficult for you?	Yes ____
Was it difficult for you to learn percentages?	Yes ____
Is it still difficult for you?	Yes ____
Was it difficult for you to learn positive and negative numbers?	Yes ____

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Yes ____

Were word problems difficult? Yes ____

Have you taken algebra? Yes ____ No ____

If yes, did you have difficulties with algebra? Yes ____

Summary of Math Skills Total Yes ____

Math Vocabulary:

Does the person have difficulty defining "EQUAL" Yes ____

Does the person have difficulty defining "AVERAGE" Yes ____

Does the person have difficulty defining "UNIT" Yes ____

Does the person have difficulty defining "VARIABLE" Yes ____

Does the person have difficulty defining "COMPOUND INTEREST" Yes ____

Summary of Math Vocabulary Total Yes ____

Reading

Do you read only what you have to read? Yes ____

Do you dislike reading? Yes ____

Does the person have poor word attack skills? Yes ____

Does the person have poor phonic skills? Yes ____

Does the person leave off endings? Yes ____

Does the person add endings? Yes ____

Does the person leave off or change prefixes? Yes ____

Does the person misread many words? Yes ____

Does the person add words? Yes ____

Does the person skip words? Yes ____

Does the person evidence Flickering? Yes ____

Does the person substitute words for similar words? Yes ____

Does the person have difficulty pronouncing words? Yes ____

Does the person ignore punctuation? Yes ____

Does the person have a tracking problem? Yes ____

Does the person use finger or marker as a guide? Yes ____

Does the person skip lines? Yes ____

Are you embarrassed to read out loud? Yes ____

Do you tilt your head when you read or study? Yes ____

Summary of Reading Problems Total Yes ____

Comprehension

Do you have difficulty paraphrasing what you read? Yes ____

Do you find yourself reading whole pages without knowing what you read? Yes ____

Are you often distracted by the words on the page (Fireworks)? Yes ____

Do you have difficulty identifying the main idea when you read? Yes ____

Do you have difficulty obtaining detail when you read? Yes ____

Are you easily distracted when you read? Yes ____

Do you find reading textbooks difficult? Yes ____

Summary of Reading Skills Total Yes ____

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Vocabulary

Does the person have difficulty defining

Level I	Level II	Level III	
"LAKE"	"SECTION"	"THEORY"	Yes ____
"SLOW"	"PASSIVE"	"RELUCTANT"	Yes ____
"CAPTURE"	"DEDICATE"	"TRANQUILIZE"	Yes ____
"SMOKE"	"MOTIVE"	"DILEMMA"	Yes ____
"REVERSE	"FOREIGN"	"UNANIMOUS"	Yes ____
"BEAUTIFUL"	"ARTIFICIAL"	"EXTENSIVE"	Yes ____
"DEVELOP"	"DEVISE"	"CONTEMPLATE"	Yes ____
"BIOLOGY"	"PHILOSOPHY	"ANTHROPOLOGY"	Yes ____
"CAUTION"	"INNOVATION"	" RENAISSANCE"	Yes ____
"NECESSARY"	"PRECISE"	"COLLECTIVE"	Yes ____

Is the person's vocabulary underdeveloped? Yes ____
Is the person's vocabulary ambiguous? Yes ____

Summary of Vocabulary Total Yes ____

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1. cat stop not the bug sleep my tell do him

2. mad car sent back then down meet pay goes

3. start river bet under fishing clocks how street spent

4. hear want better match such round shark bone

5. heavy pea grave between maze knot beat beer

6. where paws earth point press foggy spike simple

7. burn rather thumb subtract yourselves harvest traveler

8. weather soil bolt slice fixture heard singer transfer

9. dodge tease passenger impact snorkel troop ward

10. reserve cute compute quench hasty practical torment

11. kennel motive council lagoon scripture haunt furrow

12. suitable artificial avert aggressive delicious avalanche

13. invitation beseech penetration scholarship promoted

14. theory protrude hearth mechanical bewilder savored foreign

15. receptionist licorice schedule repulsively perplexity

16. reluctant abrupt anticipate carbohydrate boisterous

17. tranquilize antiseptic philosophy prophecy dominant

18. emancipate immunization perceptual conscious aromatic

19. percussion quavered anonymous momentous aquatics

20. psychology utilization skepticism anecdote logistics

21. renaissance intricate appendicitis onyx innuendo

22. precocious asphyxiate scythe ricochet schism

23. plagiarize effervesce indigenous facetious chamois

Screening Summary

Name _____ Date _____

Educational History	2-3 ____	4-6 ____	7-10 ____
Attention	2-3 ____	4-6 ____	7-10 ____
Motor Skills	2-3 ____	4-6 ____	7-8 ____
Auditory processing	2-3 ____	4-6 ____	7-10 ____
Right and Left	2-3 ____	4 6 ____	7-11 ____
Organization	2-2 ____	3-4 ____	5-7 ____
Employment	1 ____	2-3 ____	4-5 ____
Emotional	1-2 ____	3-5 ____	6-7 ____
Social and Family	2-3 ____	4-6 ____	7-8 ____
Oral Communication	1 2 ____	3-4 ____	5-6 ____
Writing	2-4 ____	5-7 ____	8-12 ____
Handwriting	2-3 ____	4-6 ____	7-9 ____
Basic Math Skills		1-2 ____	3-5 ____
Math Skills	1-4 ____	5-7 ____	8-11 ____
Math Vocabulary	1 ____	2 3 ____	4-5 ____
Reading	3-7 ____	8-12 ____	13-19 ____
Comprehension	1-2 ____	3-4 ____	5-7 ____
Vocabulary	2-3 ____	4-6 ____	7-10 ____

Reading List

Number correct Lines 1 - 14 _____ X 2 _____

Number correct Lines 15 - 23 _____ X 3 _____

Number correct with help or close enough to be recognized _____

Reading list total _____

Adult - 342 - 300 ___ 299 - 200 ___ 199 - 150 ___ 149 - 100 ___ 99 - 50 ___ 49 - 1 ___ _____

VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION

In each state, there is an agency responsible for the administration of the programs of vocational rehabilitation, supported employment, and independent living for persons with disabilities. Each of these programs has different eligibility criteria and purposes. The vocational rehabilitation program is designed to assist eligible persons with disabilities to achieve suitable employment; the supported employment program works with individuals with severe disabilities who require ongoing support services to enter or maintain competitive employment; and the independent living program is focused on working with persons with severe disabilities to enable them to live independently in the community and in the home.

All of these programs are state-federal programs in that the federal government provides the bulk of the funds for their operation, leadership in program development, technical assistance in program implementation, and monitoring of program administration. Each state has designated an agency to be responsible for the day-to-day administration of the programs. This agency is responsible for both the determination of eligibility of persons for the programs and the provision of services.

Services are tailored to the unique needs of the individual and are guided by an individualized written rehabilitation program (IWRP) which is developed by the eligible person and a representative of the state agency. The services available under these programs are quite varied and may include the following:

- medical, psychological, vocational, and other types of assessments to determine the functional strengths and limitations of the individual as these relate to the program eligibility criteria and the development of appropriate rehabilitation programming with suitable objectives and goals;
- counseling and guidance to assist an eligible person in selecting suitable rehabilitation programming, including the types of services needed to achieve the person's choice of a goal;
- referral to secure necessary services from other agencies;
- physical and mental restoration services necessary to correct or substantially modify a physical or mental condition which is stable or slowly progressive;
- vocational and other types of training, including on-the-job training, trade schools, and training in institutions of higher education;
- interpreter and reader services;
- services to family members when necessary to achieve the rehabilitation programming objectives;
- rehabilitation technology services;
- placement in suitable employment;
- post-employment services necessary to maintain or regain other suitable employment; and
- other goods and services necessary to achieve rehabilitation objectives.

The state agency can provide some of these services, such as, counseling and guidance, referral, and placement directly to an eligible person; while for other services, the agency may arrange for their provision by a vendor such as a hospital or educational institution. For many of the services, the state agency will participate with the eligible person in sharing the costs connected with the services. The extent of financial participation will vary depending on the needs and resources of both the eligible person and the agency's policies.

Since the programs are administered by the states within the broad framework of federal requirements, the states have a good deal of flexibility in the administration of these programs. Thus it is important to seek information on these programs from the state agency. In some states, the agency will be an independent agency; in other states, the agency may be part of a larger agency such as one devoted to education, employment, or human services.

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